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The Outlook

APRIL 13, 1912

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POLITICAL HAPPENINGS

Never before has there been such general interest in the election of delegates to a political convention as there has been shown by the reports in the newspapers of the results of the Republican primaries. For some reason not easily explained, there is much less interest in the primaries held by the Democrats. The contest in the Democratic party seems to be for the time being principally between Mr. Clark, the Speaker of the House, and Mr. Wilson, the Governor of New Jersey. Only a very small proportion of the delegates, however, have so far been chosen, and the relative strength of the different candidates is still largely a matter of surmise. In the Republican party the development of the past week has shown the strength of the Progressive sentiment in the Middle West. In Wisconsin, his own State, Senator La Follette easily won a victory, President Taft receiving somewhat less than a third of the votes. Mr. Roosevelt's name was not upon the ballots in Mr. La Follette's State. In Maine, of delegates so far chosen, the majority for Mr. Roosevelt is unquestioned. In Vermont there is a dispute as to what the result will be, but the advocates of Mr. Roosevelt's nomination report that if all the delegates elected attend the convention they will have a clear majority. The Republican State Committee in New York has declared its opposition to instructions in favor of any candidate. None of the delegates have been instructed, but those in New York County are clearly for Mr. Taft. The discussion with regard to the primaries in New York City has not even yet subsided. The methods adopted by machine politicians there resulted in such an obvious frustration of the purposes of a primary that the apologists for the machine have really had to take refuge in but one excuse—namely, that the primaries would have had the same results even without the frauds and the blunders. Of course that is no excuse at all, and no one who valued the intelligence of the American voter would put it forth. The thief is no less a thief because it turns out that it was not necessary for him to steal.

THE MILWAUKEE ELECTION

The one event, however, of the week which has caused more general interest than any other was the election in Milwaukee, by which the voters turned out of office the Socialist administration. This result was due to a number of causes. The Socialist administration has been expensive and has not always been efficient. In the campaign, too, the Socialists apparently made the mistake of making Socialism a competitor of patriotism, and of using conspicuously the red flag, the emblem of blood brotherhood of the Socialists. The opposition, of course, at once seized upon the American flag as their symbol and patriotism as their aim, united in opposition to the Socialists both Republicans and Democrats in a patriotic crusade, and secured an anti-Socialist and a bi-partisan, if not altogether non-partisan, victory. It is conceded even by the opponents of the Socialists that they have given to the people of Milwaukee a larger vision of what municipal government may mean, and it is very generally acknowledged that in many respects Milwaukee has profited by what the Socialists have done. Certainly it is a tribute to the Socialists in Milwaukee that they have succeeded in making a municipal election turn upon the welfare of the city rather than upon the fortunes of a political party. It behooves the successors of this Socialist administration to show that they have learned the lesson that this experience should have taught them, and to prove that they not only have the same vision for civic life as the Socialists, but more efficiency in attaining it.

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CONGRESS

By a very close vote the Senate has refused to sustain the charges that Senator Stephenson was elected in Wisconsin by corrupt means. In the vote on this subject party lines were obliterated, and in general those Senators of both parties who are regarded as "stand-pat" or reactionary were on one side, while those Senators who have been regarded as Progressives were on the other. It is hard for those who have profited by machine methods to see the evil in those methods, even when they involve obvious wrongs. Of course among those who voted in favor of Senator Stephenson were some Senators who, however much they may be morally sure that the methods used to elect Senator Stephenson are inimical to wholesome civic life, were not persuaded that the charges were sustained by evidence that would convict a man in a court of law. In the House the Democrats have reaffirmed their position on Schedule K by standing by the Wool Bill which was passed before the report of the Tariff Commission and vetoed by President Taft. The Democrats have also committed themselves to a policy of independence for the Philippines. There seems to be in this country a number of people who imagine that fitness for self-government increases in proportion with the lack of experience in self-government. It is, of course, impossible for any bill which will commit the people of the Philippines to the combined mercies of the Filipino politicians and the Powers to pass Congress and receive the approval of the President. All that the Democrats have done has been to raise an issue which their opponents will be perfectly willing to accept. Congress, in spite of the fact that it is under the divided control of the two parties, has just passed two important bills. One of these will virtually put a stop to the use in the manufacture of matches of that form of phosphorus which has been the cause of disease and death among the workers in the match factories. This measure has had the strong support of President Taft. The other measure of importance which has passed Congress is that establishing a Children's Bureau. Although President Taft has not publicly expressed his belief in this measure, it is hardly possible that it will fail of his approval. The Children's Bureau will be a monument to this Congress, and to those public-spirited citizens who, ever since the Children's Conference at the White House which was called together by President Roosevelt near the close of his term of office, have worked for this measure on behalf of the children of the Nation.

DEALING WITH EXPRESS ABUSES BY LAW

The inquiry into the methods and rates of the express business which has lately been carried on by the Inter-State Commerce Commission has stirred Congress to institute reforms by law. The Inter-State Commerce Commission has shown the existence of unfair rates, absurd business methods, and improper combination in the division of territory. For instance, as already pointed out in The Outlook, three thousand complaints of under-charges and over-charges were made against one company as regards one day of its business, and four thousand similar charges against another company for one day's business; and a very great preponderance of the complaints related to over-charges. The Inter-State Commerce Commission received over ten thousand protests against specified wrong charges by the companies. The companies themselves admit the need of a new system; and the enormous profits paid on their stocks show that we who must use the express companies because we have no parcels post are entitled to relief. The bill favorably reported to the lower house last week gives the Inter-State Commerce Commission authority over the companies, provides for co-operation between the rural free delivery department of the Post-Office and the companies, and provides also for a system of rates based on zones—so that the charge on a pound package should be two cents if sent to a point not over two hundred and fifty miles distant, twelve cents if sent to a point two thousand miles or more distant, and four, five, seven, or ten cents for intermediate distances. This is at best a makeshift measure. As a rule, rates should be fixed by a Commission rather than by legislative action. The bill, however, would very greatly improve the present state of inconsistent and excessive charges, and would seem to offer at least partial and temporary relief.

THE INDUSTRIAL SITUATION

In several respects there was a decided improvement last week in the impending danger of open war between labor and capital. In Great Britain the coal-miners have been

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advised to go back to work by their own Miners' Federation through its Executive Committee, and many of them had by the end of the week accepted the advice. After Parliament passed Mr. Asquith's Minimum Wage Law, which will establish district boards to fix a minimum wage for each district, a ballot as to resuming work was taken among the mine-workers; the total vote was about 445,000, and a majority of about 43,000 votes was cast against taking up the work; but the officers of the Federation held that, as a two-thirds majority had determined to strike, the same rule should apply to the vote on continuance. Welcome as is this result, it means a truce rather than permanent peace. Whether war is again declared or not, it is openly avowed, depends upon the way in which the Minimum Wage Law works practically. There is a strong determination among the miners to hold out for more than $1.25 per day wages for a fully skilled miner, and (as in this country) it is urged that the skill and endurance required, the constant danger incurred, and the higher cost of living make it impossible at the present wages for a miner to support a family or live decently, and that the difference between the wages paid to an unskilled ditch-digger or day laborer and a skilled coal-miner is absurdly small. In the United States a conference between the anthracite miners and mine-owners is in progress this week, and hope is expressed that mutual concessions will result in a resumption of work; it is said that the union leaders will insist upon full recognition by the mine-owners of the United Mine Workers, while the men themselves would be satisfied with a moderate advance in wages, and that the mine-owners will stand firm against the first proposal and may concede something as to the second. In the bituminous coal region a working agreement has already been reached on the basis of an increase of five cents per ton to the workers, and some changes favorable to them as to hours and methods of measurement. In the textile manufacturing world, since the cessation of the Lawrence strike, by which the workers gained substantial advantages, there have been strikes or threats of strikes in Lowell, Warren, North Adams, and other New England cotton mills, and at Utica, in New York. In the last-named place, as in Lawrence, troops were called out to guard the mills. In the railway world, whether the clash as to wages between the locomotive engineers and the roads will result in a strike depends on the result of a ballot among the engineers, and, if that favors a strike, on efforts at compromise. It is gratifying to read, in a circular put out by the secretary of the Committee of Railways, this comment on the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers:

> We do not wish to see the Brotherhood of Engineers crushed or to see Mr. Stone crushed. The Brotherhood is a good, clean, well-administered organization. It were far better to deal with such an organization than to deal with unorganized men hastily organized, where the power is apt to be in hands other than those of experienced, cool-headed men like Mr. Stone and others who head the organization.

All these and other turbulent movements in the industrial world, however they may result, indicate and emphasize the broad truth that labor and capital have equal rights to a voice in determining pay and conditions of labor. One need be neither a Socialist nor a syndicalist to realize that industrial democracy lies in the near future. The time has passed when the people at large, whose interests are at stake, can listen patiently to such utterances as those attributed to a railway president just ten years ago: "The welfare of the workingmen will be cared for, not by the agitators, but by the Christian men to whom God, in his infinite wisdom, has intrusted the property interests of the country."

PAN-AMERICAN FRIENDSHIP

The visit of Secretary Knox to the Central American Republics brings again to public attention the desirability of increasing the friendly relations of the people of the United States with the people of Central and South America, both in political and commercial affairs. Anything that can properly be done to promote the common interests of the people of the two great continents in the western hemisphere deserves the sympathetic support of the inhabitants of the United States. A useful and welcome step in this direction has been recently taken in the organization of the Pan-American Society of the United States, under the initiative of the Hon. John Barrett, Director-General of the Pan-American Union of Washington. The President of the new Society is Mr. Henry White, ex-Ambassador to France, and the Honorary Presidents are the Hon. Philander C. Knox, Secretary of State of the United States, and the Hon. Domicio da Gama, of Brazil, the ranking Ambassador

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of Latin America in this country. All those who are interested in promoting social, political, and trade relations between this country and Latin America are requested to write to the Assistant Secretary of the Society, Mr. Frederick Brown, at 52 William Street, New York, who will supply information regarding the detailed purposes of the Society and the terms and conditions of membership. It is a great misfortune that the people of the United States know so little of the great development of Latin America in recent years. In the field of commerce alone, the export and import business between this country and the people of Central and South America ought to be, and might easily be, greatly increased. But this can be done only by an intelligent knowledge on the part of our merchants and manufacturers and farmers of the needs and customs of our American neighbors to the south of us. The wide range of interests which can be touched by such a society is indicated by the fact that Lieutenant-General John C. Bates, President of the National Rifle Association of America, has asked the members of the new Pan-American Society to interest themselves in the proposed visit to Argentina of a delegation of American riflemen. The Argentine Republic has invited the National Rifle Association of America to send such a delegation to the International Pan-American Tournament of Sharpshooters which is to be held in Buenos Aires next May. Riflemen who have shot at marks together in friendly social relations are less likely to want to use their weapons for mutual destruction in war. The proposed visit of American riflemen to Argentina, a visit in which the United States Government is deeply interested, is therefore a practical peace measure.

MEXICO IN DISORDER

The reports of last week from Mexico were not encouraging, although the troops of President Madero gained a victory of some extent over the insurgents at a place called Parral, near the town of Jiminez, a town which is held by the rebels, and about which the campaign in the northern part of Mexico now seems to center. If the Government forces capture Jimenez, their intended advance against the city of Torreon must be abandoned, and they would then doubtless retreat toward Juarez, which is close to the United States border. In the southern campaign the semi-brigand chief Zapata has been very active, and it has been evident that attacks or internal outbreaks have been feared in the capital itself. The foreign residents are now armed and drill in companies according to their nationalities. Very properly, the United States Government relaxed its recent action forbidding the transmittal of arms to Mexico so far as to allow guns and ammunition to be sent to its own citizens in the City of Mexico. One newspaper despatch declares: "From one end of the country to the other disorder prevails; burning, stealing, murder, and rapine are of every-day occurrence. The Mexican army is totally inadequate to suppress the spreading flame." The same correspondent declares that the total armed force of the Government is not over sixteen thousand men, while Mexico has some fourteen million people. In other words, Madero, exactly like Diaz, has no power to compel obedience to law in places widely separated; while, unhappily for Mexico, there exist in different parts of the country ambitious, hot-headed, and excitable leaders who do not know the difference between liberty and license. Whether Madero succeeds in establishing peace and respect for law, or whether the present state of confusion and strife shall continue to prevail, is a question upon which not only the future of Mexico, but the general security of all the southern republics, depends.

CAPTAIN SCOTT NEAR THE SOUTH POLE

The story which last week reached the northern world from the vicinity of the South Pole, while it does not record absolute success, as did Captain Amundsen's narrative printed in full in The Outlook a few weeks ago, has far more of romance and personal adventure. Captain Scott sent word, under date of January 3 last, that he was then within a hundred and fifty miles of the Pole, and that he intended to push forward within the next two or three weeks from the time the message was sent. It is therefore entirely probable, although by no means certain, that by the first of February he may have reached the goal which was attained by Captain Amundsen on December 14. Captain Scott, unlike his Norwegian rival, met with disheartening difficulties, trying weather, and thrilling adventures. One of these adventures involved his own imminent danger of death and his escape by a narrow margin. His team of dogs had fallen into a crevasse, and he made his way to safety over an ice bridge which

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chanced to be available. On another occasion part of his force were swept away on an ice floe, lost three of their valued ponies, and were reached with the utmost difficulty. Captain Scott's report shows extended scientific investigation. His party is rather a large one as regards white men, and contains a number of scientific experts. Among other things found by them were quantities of coal and many fossils. The report was sent back by Captain Scott's ship, the Terra Nova, which last week reached New Zealand. Whether Captain Scott actually attains the South Pole or not, his expedition has made a record of courage and endurance which will rank high in the literature of Antarctic exploration. The generous rivalry between the British and Norwegian expeditions is a matter of congratulation to the two countries and to the scientific world.

ANTI-SUFFRAGE IN ENGLAND

The performances of the English Suffragettes are sufficiently novel to be dramatic, and therefore to find report at some length in the columns of American newspapers. The London "Times" describes their activity as having "a stereotyped form of broken glass," the Prime Minister's windows being usually first on the list. The example set by these few fanatical Englishwomen has been unexpectedly followed, and in a way humorously parodied, by the extraordinary performance of a few Chinese women who cast off the restraints of the East at a bound, and, as Mr. Lang has said, not only taking off their bonnets but throwing them over the steeple, burst into the presence of the Chinese Assembly, and, to the surprise and consternation of the newly organized lawgivers in that ancient Empire, proceeded to inflict bodily violence upon them. These ladies were not content with breaking windows; but, if reports are to be trusted, they tore the garments of the legislators, scratched their faces, and drove them panic-stricken from the hall. It must not be supposed, however, that the Suffragettes are having their own way in England. The opposition to them is widespread and is becoming more highly organized. At a great meeting recently held in Albert Hall, presided over by Lord Cromer, the reasons for opposing the extension of the suffrage to women were stated dispassionately and with dignity by the Lord Chancellor and by Mr. Lewis Harcourt. The Prime Minister was unable to be present, but sent a letter repeating his conviction that the proposed measure would be a grave political mistake. One of the most striking addresses was made by Miss Violet Markham, who declared that the opponents of woman's suffrage did not depreciate in the least woman's work and mission, but are concerned only to find proper channels of expression for that work. She pointed out the fact that there is any amount of public work waiting to be done by women whose whole time is not absorbed by the needs of their own homes; social work, more fundamental and far-reaching than the political work which falls to man, is waiting to be performed, and has been overlooked and neglected by the great majority of women. Miss Markham put the question frankly, as only a woman would like to put it, whether it is not "humbug" to talk about women having no share in the national life when only a small minority have shown practical interest or sympathy with the causes which concern the aged, the sick, the destitute, the erring, and the salvation of little children—all causes which should go straight to the heart of every true woman. Mr. Harcourt declared that there is nothing to show that the demand for the extension of suffrage has the approval either of the majority of men in England or of the majority of women. Lord Curzon protested against the charge that the anti-suffrage movement is an anti-woman movement. He declared that they were not fighting the battle of educated women alone, but of the workingwomen of the country; and expressed his belief that the strongest opposition to the movement would be found among the workingwomen.

MILLIONS LOST IN FAKE ENTERPRISES

The Post-Office Department, as already reported in The Outlook, estimates that credulous investors were defrauded out of $77,000,000 last year through fake investment enterprises. In most instances not a dollar was paid in dividends, and from the nature of the concerns none could be paid from legitimate earnings. Hundreds of the companies were raided by the authorities and their offices closed. Of 572 indictments, 184 convictions were secured. As it was generally impossible to find any assets, the investors, of course, received nothing. Hundreds of other concerns are yet in operation, and the golden stream of cash is flowing steadily into the pockets of

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unscrupulous schemers. States are endeavoring to protect their people from this sort of robbery. Kansas has a law requiring every agent for stock to secure from the State Bank Commissioner a permit to do business. Before this permission is granted the Commissioner may make full examination of the project. Hundreds of applications have been refused, and it is estimated by the Department that in the ten months of its operation the regulation has saved the public over $200,000. Massachusetts, Illinois, and other commonwealths are preparing to adopt a similar law. The country is waking up to the immense loss to thrift from the exploitation of fraudulent undertakings which exist solely for the purpose of obtaining the savings of the uninformed. Flaming advertisements in newspapers willing to accept such announcements are the favorite medium of persuasion, but lists of names, including widows with small legacies, farmers with savings in the bank, teachers with a portion of their salary laid away for old age, ministers, and people of moderate means—all eager to secure the largest possible return on their hoard—furnish a fruitful source of profit. The credulity of the public in investment matters passes understanding. A magazine which a few months ago printed a burlesque announcement fashioned after the get-rich-quick literature, showing how a goose farm could make a $100 investment return $300,000 in a year, received scores of serious letters asking for further information. Magazines and newspapers that accept advertising of these fake investment concerns have much to answer for in the suffering and sorrow brought upon trusting individuals. In most instances the men and women who are defrauded are those least able to stand the loss. No State or Federal vigilance can fully protect against the mail order investor, and by the time complaints come to the authorities and the offices are raided the promoters have gathered their thousands and placed much of the gain beyond reach. Not until the character of the concern is learned can its mail be confiscated or its officers arrested.

EDUCATING FOR INVESTMENT

The need of education as to what constitutes a safe investment has appealed to many colleges and universities, and departments of economics are being broadened to include studies of the machinery of modern business methods. In schools of commerce are being taught the principles of sound securities and analysis of promotion plans. Such schools are in operation in New York, at the University of Wisconsin, in Chicago under the management of Northwestern University, and elsewhere. Eventually they will be a part of every college that aims to meet the plain needs of the people. As a concrete example of just what can be taught, the course of the Northwestern University's School of Commerce is interesting. In addition to professional accounting, commercial law, business organization, and railway rate making, it has a full course in finance. This includes description of financial institutions, methods, and terms; principles of money; description of monetary and banking systems; functions of banks, relation of banks to speculation, panics, and financial crises. In corporation finance are studied the nature and economic function of business corporations, methods of promotion and organization; the proper use of bonds and stocks, with comparative advantages of different forms; marketing securities; administration of corporation funds; establishment of credit; relations of corporations to the public, and the reorganization of embarrassed corporations. Following this is a study of the securities issued by National, State, and municipal governments, by railways and industrial corporations; of the nature of investment; of various kinds of stocks and bonds for investment purposes; of the security market, stock exchange, marketing securities, and the weakness of over-inflated issues. The enrollment in this very practical school is this year 362, and so favorably does it appeal to the business men of Chicago that liberal gifts from them have made possible its maintenance. Such education for the student body of our leading institutions of learning would mean not only a constantly increasing number of young people capable of discerning the weaknesses of fake investments, but the upbuilding of a widespread knowledge in interior communities of how to invest money safely. It would have more definiteness than the education now given in economics, and would fit its possessors for intelligent judgment. Precisely because the fakers grow rich on the ignorance of their victims, this sort of preparation for those who are to take leading parts both as money-makers and as advisers of their communities is needed. While it will not be possible ever to stop entirely the loss in worthless securities result-

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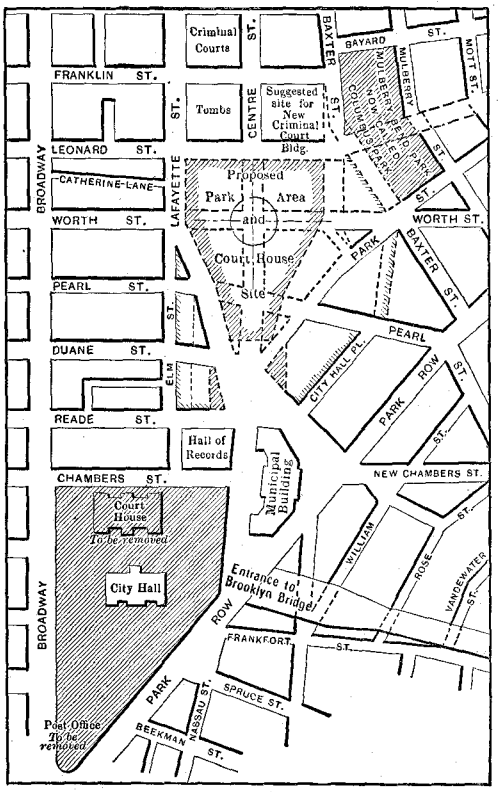
ing from specious promises of riches, much may be done to fit the public for discrimination and understanding.

A NEW CIVIC CENTER FOR NEW YORK CITY

New York City is to have a new civic center. The recent acceptance by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the Court-House site selected by its committee will have this result. The center will cover what was once a swamp between Broadway and the post road to Boston. Dark shadings in the accompanying illustration indicate the Court-House site and park areas; other slight shadings indicate alternate schemes calling for a wider extension of the same idea, taking in larger adjoining areas as sites for other public buildings. The removal of the present Court-House and of the old Post-Office from the City Hall Park would restore that inclosure to what it was originally intended to be—a setting for our best example of Colonial architecture, the New York City Hall. The establishment of the new County Court-House at the intersection of Center and Worth Streets establishes a new park area, for a great amount of land about the site is to be condemned. But just to the northeast of this site is Mulberry Bend Park, offering a third open space. On the other side of Mulberry Bend Park a parkway should lead to the Manhattan Bridge Plaza; in this case, there would be a series of open spaces and great public buildings all the way from Broadway and Park Row to the Manhattan Bridge. Looking up Broadway, one would see a break in the buildings, and, instead of, as now, being struck in the face by the mass of the Federal Building, occupied in part by the Post-Office, there would be the green plot of City Hall Park with the City Hall itself alone in the middle of the open area. Looking northeast from this, there would be the new civic center with the new Court-House at the upper end of the open area, with the axis centering on the intersection of Worth and Center Streets, and in front of it the expanse of the new park. Still looking northeast, there would be Mulberry Bend Park and the proposed parkway.



PROPOSED CIVIC CENTER FOR NEW YORK CITY

ITS MEANING TO HEALTH AND BEAUTY

The result would be that the dwellers on the East Side of the metropolis are likely to find their region transformed by a system which will directly appeal as a help to health by reason of the sunshine, air, and shrubbery. It will also appeal to the æsthetic sense by reason of the architecture of the new buildings. Take the present Federal building; besides being inconvenient and uncomfortable, it is not pleasant to look at. The new County Court-House will also doubtless be an improvement architecturally on the present building. Its site will occupy the four blocks bounded on the north by Leonard Street, on the west by Lafayette Street, on the east by Baxter and Park Streets, and on the south by the open spaces between Chambers Street and the conjunction of Lafayette and Park Streets. The cost of this property under condemnation proceedings will exceed six million dollars, but the Court-House site is only one feature of the plan. Just to the north are the structures occupied by the Tombs prison and the Criminal Court building. The latter, in the old swamp, though a comparatively new edifice, is slowly going to pieces through the sinking of its foundations here and there; and it is part of the civic center plan to take the block bounded by Leonard, Center, Baxter, and Franklin Streets, as a site for a

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new Criminal Court building. Mr. McAneny, President of the Borough of Manhattan, has now made application for the block. Of course, if the whole plan is carried out, there will be a large increase of the city debt and its annual charge upon the tax levy for interest and sinking fund. It may be remembered, however, that there may be a corresponding increase in the tax valuation of the surrounding property. In any event, the action taken marks a great step towards the redemption of the metropolis as far as health, convenience, and beauty are concerned.

JOHN BURROUGHS AT SEVENTY-FIVE

Mr. John Burroughs's genius for friendship has been no small element in a career which has brought pleasure to a host of people and will leave a permanent memorial of its activity in American literature. His seventy-fifth birthday, which fell on April 3, was quietly observed after his usual fashion; but it was remembered by a multitude of people to whom his books have given the satisfaction which comes when original observation and good writing are joined. He says that he has "a keen relish for a mighty good trio—food, work, and friends." In other words, at the middle of his eighth decade he is still, in his interests and activities, a young man. A year ago, he remembers with considerable satisfaction, he spent his birthday in California climbing 9,000 feet up Mount Wilson, on "a dare" from a group of Vassar girls, and he does not hesitate to say that when he descended he was in better condition than his companions, and he is confident that he could do it again. Mr. Burroughs has lived quietly for many years on the west shore of the Hudson; but he has not been stationary; on the contrary, he was once a clerk in the Treasury Department at Washington, later he was a bank examiner; he has also been a teacher, a farmer, a journalist, and for many years a man of letters, whose work has appeared in the foremost periodicals, and whose books have gone into many editions. He reports that he has done as much hard work during the past year as in any previous year of his life; that he has completed a volume of essays of a speculative character, that he is revising the manuscripts of two volumes soon to be published, and that he has written essays for the "Century," the "Atlantic Monthly," and The Outlook; among these essays is a chapter on "The Summit of the Years," which readers will welcome because it promises to be autobiographical. Mr. Burroughs has made his own place in American out-of-door writings; and those who find Thoreau too remote and impersonal in his report of nature find Mr. Burroughs eminently companionable. Thoreau cared more, apparently, than Mr. Burroughs for wild nature; but the author of "Wake Robin," "Fresh Fields," and "Winter Sunshine" has made us familiar with the nature at our own doors; and he is also an admirable critic of literature, as his notable essay on Matthew Arnold showed years ago.

DISCUSSION AND LIBERTY

Only that nation is free whose people can, and will, freely discuss their problems, and freely form and express their opinion of public servants.

The old view that the king could do no wrong, and that public criticism of the acts of the king was a form of disloyalty to the nation, was, so long as it prevailed, and so long as kings had real power, an obstacle to freedom. As people under monarchical rule have discovered this fact, they have gradually removed the obstacle; they have either got rid of the idea of *lèse-majesté*, or they have got rid of their kings, or else they have made of their kings mere figureheads concerning whom it is not necessary to say anything, good or ill. In a free government, therefore, where there are neither kings nor traditions of kings, and where the state is identified not with the ruler but with the people, the spirit of disloyalty, if not treason, is to be found, not in those who encourage free discussion and scrutiny of public servants, but in those who by intimidation or ridicule or sophistry attempt to prevent such free discussion and such scrutiny.

There is evident on the part of certain newspapers which are subservient to powerful special interests, or are particularly sympathetic with the strong and the privileged, a deliberate purpose to prevent or to minimize such free discussion. Either consciously or unconsciously, they feel that such free discussion is inimical to the interests they serve or to the special classes they revere. So they denounce as demagogue, reckless agi-

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tator, enemy of his kind, any man who effectively, so that the people will listen, points out what he regards as contrary to public welfare in the acts and records of the Administration. Such newspapers do their work skillfully. They not only do this through their editorial pages, which most readers have learned to discount, but more subtly through their news columns, and especially through their headlines.

We warn our readers to be on their guard against this attempt on the part of newspapers to stifle free discussion. We suggest to them that they pay little attention to headlines; that, wherever a public speech is not printed in full in the newspapers, they exercise caution in reading what purports to be a report of it, unless that report appears in a newspaper that is either eminent for its fairness or is in sympathy with the speaker whose address is reported; and that when they read in a headline or in an editorial that one public man has been engaged in "abuse" of another, they read the speech itself and find out whether indeed it is personal vilification (which it is as bad to direct against a public man as against a private citizen) or whether it has not been perfectly legitimate—even if vigorous and even if mistaken—criticism.

On the part of those who wish to suppress such free discussion there has been, and there will continue to be, an effort to lead the minds of the people away from the consideration of principles and policies, and the wisdom or unwisdom of specific acts on the part of public servants, and to lead the minds of the people into questions of personal interest, and personal fortunes, and personal feuds. Every right-thinking American who values his own liberty of mind will resist this attempt on the part of interested parties to deprive him of his liberty. He will keep clear in his mind the fact that the only loyalty which a public officer as public officer owes in this country is loyalty to the people, and that the deeds of a man in public office are to be measured by no other loyalty than that.

It is important that this effort to obscure issues by personalities should be resisted, because there has never been a time in recent years when it has been more important that the people of the country should be able to choose between two broad views of popular government.

According to one view, popular government is such in name only and not in fact. President Taft expressed this view when he said this was a government of the people, for the people, by a representative part of the people. In order to show this he pointed out that the electorate constituted only one-fourth of the total population; and therefore it was a representative part of the people. And he used this as an argument to prove that even a smaller minority, that a class, such as the judges, should be given power beyond the reach of the people. In other words, he held up as desirable a form of government in which the will of the people could be defied by a representative part. That is a perfectly legitimate view, and one that ought to be freely expressed and discussed.

The other view is fundamentally different. This view is that this is indeed a government, not by a representative part of the people, but by the whole people, and that whatever interferes with government by the whole people is contrary to the spirit of American institutions; that the mere fact that the ballots are cast by a quarter of the population (and the population includes babies in arms) is no indication that this is not a government by the whole people; that if at any time it became clear that the electorate as now constituted did not express the will of the whole people, it should be constituted differently; that the mere casting of ballots by the electorate is not an exhibition of the exercise of power over three-quarters of the people by one-quarter of the people; that if it ever became such (which is quite inconceivable), our government would be turned into an intolerable oligarchy; and that to use this illustration of the electorate as an excuse for granting to any class or group within the country irresponsible power, is to show utter misunderstanding of the spirit of American self-rule.

Here are two views. Mr. Taft takes one view, and has expressed it forcibly in his Toledo speech. It is the view that explains many acts of his Administration. It is a view that is shared by a certain element and a very large proportion of office-holders in his own party. The other view is the view that is held by those who call themselves Progressives.

Which of these two views a man holds will determine his attitude towards the great questions which this country now faces—the question of capital and labor; the questions of social, as distinct from individual, justice; the question of Conservation; the question of the relation of the Government, including the courts, to the life and the wel-

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fare of the people; the question as to the relative value of property and human life.

To every reader of The Outlook we would say, Do not let yourself be turned aside into talk about the personal fortunes of this man or that, but keep your mind on this matter of principle.

GETTING TOGETHER

Mr. Winston Churchill, the novelist, writing in the January number of the "Atlantic Monthly" under the title "Modern Government and Christianity," put forward a striking interpretation of the course of history since the Reformation and of the significance of the present confused movement in politics. In his opinion, the conception of divine and human relations, which is the heart of the Christian religion, is working down to the roots of the social and political relations of men and women, and what we are now seeing is a genuine religious movement. The waters are being stirred by an angel, and not by an agitator. Mr. Churchill is right. The movement of to-day in public affairs is not fundamentally political, not even fundamentally economic: it is fundamentally moral; in a very true sense it is fundamentally religious. For a long time past the mind of society has been opening to a new idea of social justice; now its heart is opening to a new passion for justice. It is impossible any longer to deal with men and women simply as factors in an economic system; it is impossible not to take into account their conditions as men and women. Society no longer thinks of itself as an abstract organization, but as a living and growing organization. And it is now beginning to understand that justice is not an abstract principle, but the only safe foundation on which social and industrial organization can rest. This movement is not destructive; it is constructive in the truest sense of the word.

It is not only an attempt to make social and economic conditions conform to the demands of the more sensitive conscience of the world—it is also an expression of the instinct for safety. The old sources of authority are gone; the divine right of kings is a fiction of the past; the rule of a selected few, either oligarchy or aristocracy, has faded into a social tradition. It counts in society; it does not count in the larger world. The thunders of the Church fall on indifferent ears; the armies of the world are no longer the blind instruments of tyranny. Society rests for the first time on the moral ideals and discipline of its members. To this it was bound to come under the law of evolution, and here is its only real safety. The religious conception of life is the only conception that will save society from some form of tyranny—social, industrial, individual, or collective—from the iron rule of wealth, tyrannously used, or from the fury of mobs; from organized graft on the part of bosses, or from the despotism of unthinking majorities. Under the forms of law, with only incidental violence, this great change in great affairs is taking place in all parts of the Western world. It is a revival of religion—an attempt practically to apply Christianity to the political and economic relations of men and women.

In the past, changes so fundamental have been called revolutions, and have been accompanied with such violence and hate that the word revolutionary has come to have a secondary and disturbing meaning. But if the principles of religion are to be applied in public affairs, the methods of religion in securing those principles ought also to be applied. Bitterness and class hatred are out of date; they belong to an age when men could not differ without destroying one another. Enormous sacrifices have been made in order that society might reach a point of civilization at which great changes can be brought about without brutality or wanton destructiveness. The labor leaders who are preaching class hatred are traitors to the cause of labor; the capitalists who are attempting to organize those who control great industries as against a common enemy are traitors to their own cause. The great majority of workingmen want only what lies well within the right of a human being to claim—a decent share in the prosperity they have helped to earn. An increasing number of men and women of means are coming to recognize their obligations to the society which makes the acquisition of wealth possible. There are many plutocrats whose wealth represents, not brains and industry, but special favors from the law and brutal disregard of the rights of others; there are men holding wealth honestly acquired who do not read the signs of the times, and who see, not a reorganization of society, but only the unrest of a class led by ambitious leaders. But there is a larger class of employers and of men and women of means who have a deep

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sense of personal obligation to society and are eager to know what to do in order to make social justice the rule of life; whose hearts and hands are busy in the service of the unfortunate and of those who have not had a fair chance; who are eager to bind up the wounds of those who have fallen by the roadside. In this great movement no class is wholly in the wrong; no class has closed its mind to the appeal for social justice. It is a time for mutual forbearance and co-operation; not a time for anger and fear and denunciation either of labor or capital. The day of destruction as a means of reform ought to be past; it is high time for all classes of people to "get together." The railways are beginning to consult and inform their passengers. Let the manufacturers take their employees into their confidence, and the labor leaders urge their just claims and not stir up class hatred. No one class is to rule this country in the future—the whole people are to rule it. If they are to rule wisely, they must "get together."

IS PRAYER A FORM OF SELFISHNESS?

Frederic Harrison thinks that prayer is a form of selfishness, and accordingly condemns it. In his "Autobiography" he says: "Of every million prayers that daily rise from the earth, 999,999 are certainly for some personal and external advantage." If we thought that he was right in his assumption, we should agree with his conclusion. If prayer were an application to a silent partner for his aid in getting special privilege, it would deserve reprobation. But is it so? Is Frederic Harrison right? Are devout souls like the clamorous beggars who surround the diligence in some parts of Europe, struggling with each other to get, each for himself, the largest share possible of the gifts thrown down from the roof by the unknown and careless traveler?

What the secret prayers of devout souls are Frederic Harrison does not know; no one knows. There is on earth no record of them. The secrets of this sacred confessional are never revealed. But devout souls do not always pray in secret. They unite in expression of their hearts' desires to their Father. In these united communions they often use a common expression of their experience. Not infrequently also the individual uses these common forms in his personal devotions. It is not unfair to presume that those forms of prayer which have proved most dear to worshipers, because most expressive of their devotional life, resemble in spirit their personal and secret devotions. If out of every million prayers daily uttered, 999,999 are for some personal and external advantage, it would be reasonable to expect that out of the thousands of printed prayers used by devout souls at least a majority would be characterized by the same eager selfishness. That some of them are so characterized is possibly true; that most of them are not so characterized is certainly true.

There is one prayer which every day is uttered in Christian worship by innumerable worshipers. It is the language of Christians of every church in every land, and is uttered in almost every dialect spoken throughout the world—the Lord's Prayer:

> Our Father, who art in heaven, Hallowed be thy name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done on earth, as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread. And forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive those who trespass against us. And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil.

In this prayer there is only one request for external advantage—the prayer for daily bread. There is no request for personal advantage. This prayer, which expresses the common wants of the human race, expresses them on behalf of the human race. Says Chrysostom, writing in the fourth century:

> He teaches, moreover, to make our prayer common, in behalf of our brethren also. For he saith not, "my Father, which art in heaven," but "*our Father*," offering up his supplications for the body in common, and nowhere looking to his own, but everywhere to his neighbor's good. And by this he at once takes away hatred, and quells pride, and casts out envy, and brings in the mother of all good things, even Charity, and exterminates the inequality of human things, and shows how far the equality reaches between the king and the poor man, if, at least in those things which are greatest and most indispensable, we are all of us fellows.

And this interpretation, repeated in sermon and in commentary from that day to this, expresses the understanding of centuries of Christian life. In this prayer no petitioner stands alone; no petitioner seeks a special privilege. Food, forgiveness, guidance, deliverance, we all need, and we all join in asking that these blessings may be given to all. We are not competing beggars struggling to get

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from an unknown benefactor some special advantage. We are children coming together to a Father asking for the same gift to be bestowed upon us all.

Turn over a few pages of the New Testament and the reader comes upon another prayer—that uttered by Paul for his friends at Ephesus:

> For this cause I bow my knees unto the Father of our Lord Jesus Christ, of whom the whole family in heaven and earth is named, that he would grant you, according to the riches of his glory, to be strengthened with might by his Spirit in the inner man; that Christ may dwell in your hearts by faith; that ye, being rooted and grounded in love, may be able to comprehend with all saints what is the breadth, and length, and depth, and height; and to know the love of Christ, which passeth knowledge, that ye might be filled with all the fullness of God.

In this prayer there is neither external nor personal advantage sought. Paul asks for others what he already possesses himself—the inspiration of love and the companionship of the great Lover. He whose faith was so vivid that he feared lest, by the abundance of the revelations given to him, he should be exalted above measure; he whose hope was so triumphant that he could meet death with the defiance, "O death, where is thy sting? O grave, where is thy victory?" he whose love was so spontaneous that he could write, "I will very gladly spend and be spent for you; though the more abundantly I love you, the less I be loved"—he asks for others that they also may have dwelling in them the same invisible Spirit of life, that they may know the breadth and length and depth and height of immeasurable love, that they may be filled with all the fullness of God. How many of the million prayers that daily ascend to the Father breathe this spirit no one can know; but we may be very sure that this prayer has not been without its influence on all lovers of the New Testament as a book of devotion.

In all worshiping assemblies a feature in every Sabbath service, and in most week-day services, is a confession of sin and a petition for help in making the life of the future more worthy than the life of the past has been. The expression of this twofold desire is different in different churches. But its general spirit is well expressed by the General Confession in the Episcopal Book of Common Prayer:

> Almighty and most merciful Father; we have erred, and strayed from thy ways like lost sheep. We have followed too much the devices and desires of our own hearts. We have offended against thy holy laws. We have left undone those things which we ought to have done; and we have done those things which we ought not to have done; and there is no health in us. But thou, O Lord, have mercy upon us, miserable offenders. Spare thou those, O God, who confess their faults. Restore thou those who are penitent; according to thy promises declared unto mankind in Christ Jesus our Lord. And grant, O most merciful Father, for his sake, that we may hereafter live a godly, righteous, and sober life. To the glory of thy holy Name. Amen.

This prayer is offered at the beginning of the service; it is the doorway through which we enter into the temple of prayer. By it we seek in our approach to the Father to cleanse ourselves of all selfish desire for external and personal advantage. And this prayer is not merely for the personal petitioner; it is not merely for a group of petitioners assembled in the church. It is for the whole human race. It asks pardon for all those who confess their faults, and restoration of all those who are penitent. It is a devout expression of human brotherhood.

In addition to the prayers prepared for and used in public worship by congregations of worshipers giving a united expression to their devotions, there is a very considerable literature which has been prepared for use in individual and family devotions. Thus the Roman Catholic Breviary contains a number of prayers not used ordinarily in public service, but recommended by the Church to its communicants for private use. From these prayers we select one which differs in no wise in spirit from the group to which it belongs. It follows analogous prayers, one for the President of the United States, the other for the Governor of the State:

> We recommend likewise, to thy unbounded mercy, all our brethren and fellow-citizens, throughout the United States, that they may be blessed in the knowledge, and sanctified in the observance, of thy most holy law; that they may be preserved in union, and in that peace which the world cannot give; and, after enjoying the blessings of this life, be admitted to those which are eternal.

When we remember that this patriotic aspiration that the blessing of righteousness, peace, and happiness may come to their fellow-Americans is uttered by thousands of devout Roman Catholics every day in their private devotions, that similar petitions are uttered by their fellow-citizens of other na-

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tions by Roman Catholic communicants in other lands, and that in their unselfish desire for the well-being of others this prayer resembles other similar prayers in the same official collection, we are quite warranted in saying that the Roman Catholic Breviary alone affords a quite adequate refutation of the extraordinary assertion of Frederic Harrison that not more than one prayer out of every million daily uttered is for other than some personal and external advantage.

To these illustrations of devotion, both public and private, we add one more that is purely individualistic—the prayer written and read by Robert Louis Stevenson to his family the night before his death. Robert Louis Stevenson was characteristically unconventional. Resolutely he refused to abate one jot or tittle of his own faith to conform to the standards of others. He bought his liberty with a great price. We may be very sure that his prayers were the simple and sincere expression of his own aspirations. And this prayer, among the last utterances of a life singularly free from all false pretense, appeals to all devout souls as beautifully expressing their own wishes for themselves and their loved ones:

> We beseech thee, Lord, to behold us with favor, folk of many families and nations gathered together in the peace of this roof, weak men and women subsisting under the covert of thy patience. Be patient still; suffer us yet a while longer; with our broken purposes of good, with our idle endeavors against evil, suffer us a while longer to endure, and (if it may be) help us to do better. Bless to us our extraordinary mercies; if the day come when these must be taken, brace us to play the man under affliction. Be with our friends, be with ourselves. Go with each of us to rest; if any awake, temper to them the dark hours of watching; and when the day returns, return to us, our sun and comforter, and call us up with morning faces and with morning hearts—eager to labor—eager to be happy, if happiness shall be our portion—and if the day be marked for sorrow, strong to endure it. We thank thee and praise thee; and in the words of him to whom this day is sacred, close our oblation.

Doubtless prayers are often tainted by selfishness. They are sometimes the clamorous request of an idle beggar for the food which he should go out and earn for himself; or the request of a speculator for help in getting some special advantage for himself or his family; or the endeavor of a weakling to throw off the responsibility of his own life upon another; or the effort of a wrong-doer to escape the consequences of his own willful misconduct. But prayer does not promote selfishness. Self-seeking does not thrive in the conscious companionship of the Infinite Love. The congregations of worshipers who will meet next Sunday will not go back to their work inspired with a new zeal for the gratification of their greed, their vanity, or their ambition. Imperfect as are our churches, the streams of beneficence which flow from them are a sufficient evidence that even conventional and half-hearted devotion promotes the spirit of service. The consciousness of the Father's presence inspires a consciousness of human brotherhood.

Nor in our private prayers are we seeking to edge our way to the front to the disadvantage of our brother. No! In these secret and sacred hours we lay aside the disguises which sometimes deceive others and oftener deceive ourselves. We lie open and patent before Him with whom we have to do. We realize for the time that He knows us far better than we know ourselves; that we cannot deceive Him, and in His presence it is not easy for us longer to deceive ourselves. We confess the sins which we have consciously committed, but we also confess the sinfulness of which we are but vaguely conscious, and which we cannot define: "Search me, O God, and prove me, and see if there be any evil way in me, and lead me in the way everlasting." We ask for needs we clearly recognize—food, forgiveness, guidance, deliverance; but we also with open face behold as in a glass the glory of our Lord, and come from that silent companionship equipped with ideals of life and aspirations for perfection which this companionship has bestowed upon us. We thank Him for mercies which we can record, but we also thank Him for Himself, for what He is more than for what He does, and say to Him who knows us so thoroughly, Lord, thou knowest all things, thou knowest that we love thee.

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RECENT MUSICAL HAPPENINGS IN NEW YORK

A REVIEW

AMONG the fine arts in America music seems to be the most laggard. This is true principally from the point of view of the creative artist. Among the painters of the world there are Americans who are eminent. American architects can point to those of their own number who have attained a position by no means far below their contemporaries in the Old World. So far, however, America has produced no composer who can bear comparison with those of Europe. Sometimes strong claims have been made for the achievements of the late Edward MacDowell; but, individualistic as his style was, he can scarcely be called great in comparison with even such of the lesser European musical lights as Rubinstein or Grieg; and no one composer of America has attained anything approaching the place in music of any one of a number of composers who have lived and worked within the past generation. Only to mention the names of some of them is enough to show how utterly impossible it is to name an American who can stand in their company—Dvořák, Tschaikovsky, Richard Strauss, Reger, Debussy, Puccini, Massenet, Rimsky-Korsakov, Elgar. There are no Americans that can be ranked, so far as international reputation is concerned, even with Leoncavallo, Mascagni, or Wolf-Ferrari; and, of course, there are none that can be named in the same breath with Franz Liszt, or with Richard Wagner, or with César Franck, or with Johannes Brahms. If we take as a standard of comparison the work represented by such names as these, it is not worth while spending much time or labor in estimating the work of American composers. That, however, is not a sensible standard to use. What is really worth finding out is not whether America is producing music that is worthy of being preserved alongside of that by European masters, but whether the art of music is really making progress in America; and, if so, whether that progress is discernible in the works of American composers.

This is what must be borne in mind in forming any estimate of such a work as Horatio Parker's opera "Mona."

As a composer Professor Parker has already made a creditable place for himself in the annals of American music. Very few American compositions are so well known outside of this country as his "Hora Novissima." The music that he has composed for the service of the church has both distinction and beauty. In his work there has generally been evidence of that restraint without which the highest art in music cannot be achieved. One does not naturally think of Professor Parker as the composer of opera. Perhaps that fact whetted the curiosity of those who waited to hear the music of "Mona." It proved to be very different from the music that has come from his pen heretofore. The writer of massive choral music has transformed himself into an extreme exponent of music-drama. The idiom of the English church musician is forsaken for the idiom of Wagner. Into his choral writing, particularly in that for the church, Horatio Parker has succeeded in infusing something of his own personality. Almost any one of his anthems, for example, leaves the impression that only Horatio Parker could have written it. Now in his conversion to opera he seems to have forsaken not only his old style, but also himself. One has the feeling that, except for occasional passages of individuality, almost anybody of Professor Parker's attainments might have written "Mona."

Nevertheless, the opera "Mona"—which is not really an opera at all, but a music-drama—is in many respects impressive. In the first place, Professor Parker had in Mr. Brian Hooker's dramatic poem an unusual libretto. The story of the drama is the story of a woman who, because she is false to her womanhood, brings disaster upon the very people whom she has forsaken her womanhood to serve. Mona was a descendant of Boadicea, and lived, as the story goes, in Britain under the rule of the Romans. Partly because of her training, she has come to dream of leading the Britons against their rulers in battle. Her ambitions are somewhat shaken by the love of Gwynn, whose mother was a British captive and whose father, as the Britons are unaware, is the Roman Governor.

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Gwynn persuades his father to promise that if he can win Mona and secure the loyalty of the people there will be peace between Britain and Rome. Mona, however, consumed with her own ambition, repulses Gwynn against her own instincts and finally kills him, only to discover at the end, after she and her people have been defeated with great slaughter, that Gwynn was indeed the son of the Governor, and that by following her instincts as a woman and being guided by her love she would have done peacefully and naturally all that she had aimed to do by her perverse ambition.

"So that was God's voice, after all!
That weakness, that strange fear of Gwynn's glad eyes,
That warm pain in my blood answering him,
That little, foolish whisper in my heart
All night long, that I put away from me,
Smothering it with huge dreams! That was all
God asked of me—only to drink my joy,
Only to be a woman, only to cease
From struggling, rest so, and be drowsy-glad
Like a child comforted! It was too slight
A service for great ends—too small, too sweet—
Any one could have done so much."

The story of Mona is the story of many twentieth-century women. Indeed, sometimes it seems as if it were the story of the twentieth-century woman. And in this poem of Brian Hooker's it is told with great dramatic power. As a libretto for an opera it is not by any means perfect; but it is so far superior in substance, and even in form, to what serves as framework for most operas, that it is safe to say that whatever success "Mona" secures will be due in large measure to Mr. Hooker's book.

In writing the music for this drama, Professor Parker has out-Wagnered Wagner in his observance of the rule that the music should serve simply to intensify the dramatic movement. It is hard to imagine that any one would ever care to hear this music apart from the opera, any more than one would care to go to the Metropolitan Opera-House simply to look at the stage scenery. This does not mean that the stage scenery is not beautiful. In many respects it is unusually so. But it served its purpose when it gave an adequate setting to the play. So with the music; it served its purpose in so far as it contributed to the expression of the feelings implicit in the drama itself.

In handling his material, Professor Parker showed that he understood his medium. He knows how to write for the voice, and he knows how to write for the orchestra. There is nothing uncertain or amateurish about his workmanship. In that respect he has set an example that it will not be easy for other American composers to follow. It is natural to compare "Mona" with the one other opera by a native American produced on the Metropolitan stage—Frederick S. Converse's "The Pipe of Desire." As a whole, "Mona" is much the more successful. This is partly due to the fact that the libretto of "The Pipe of Desire" was not one that could get across the footlights. It is also partly due to the fact that the Yale composer, Professor Parker, seemed to hold his forces in hand better than his Harvard compeer, Mr. Converse. On the other hand, there was more individuality and distinction in the musical material of the earlier opera than in that of "Mona."

Though to the ambitious composer opera affords the most alluring field—perhaps because it is associated with parterre and grand tier boxes and famous singers whose voices are heard in phonographs all over the land—yet the real progress of music is registered outside of the opera-house. In spite of all the plaudits of white-gloved gentlemen and ladies, and in spite of all the wreaths and beribboned flowers, that marked the first performance of "Mona," there was more promise for American music in a very much humbler occasion in Carnegie Lyceum, not far from the Metropolitan Opera-House in New York, and at about the same time. Before an audience that by no means crowded that small hall, Edwin Grasse, with the assistance of others, played some of his own compositions. In those pieces of chamber music—one a trio, the others pieces for violin and piano—there was the evidence of something very like creative genius. Mr. Grasse's work is full of buoyant, soaring melody, but, like the spire of a true Gothic cathedral, it springs from a soundly built, beautifully poised structure. In his work there is evinced something of that love of proportion that the Greeks associated with beauty, and in modern music is supremely exhibited in the works of Brahms. It is refreshing to find an American composer who regards music as art, and at the same time has within himself springs of melody. There are many men who are working hard and conscientiously in music. David Stanley Smith, whose quartet was recently produced by the Kneisels, has enlisted his conscience

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in his composition; but his work lacks the spontaneity that distinguishes the masterpiece of the artist from the masterpiece of the artisan. There are a number of men who have the gift of melody. Some of them are devoting it to unworthy ends, or are ignorant of the means by which that gift may be taken in hand and molded to produce works of lasting beauty. Mr. Grasse has something of both elements, at times a great deal of both—the spontaneous gift of melody and the instinct for, or knowledge of, form.

Progress in music, however, does not rest solely in the hands of those who are composing. In no respect has music in America shown a greater advance than in orchestral concerts. To-day Chicago, Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Seattle, Minneapolis, and Cincinnati each has its own orchestra or orchestras. Time was when such music as the modern orchestra gives could in the West be heard only as it was given by an orchestra from the East. Inestimable service was rendered to the country by what Theodore Thomas did in his travels with his orchestra. Now the Eastern cities have to look to their laurels.

For example, there are few orchestras in the world that can be ranked with the Minneapolis Orchestra. An orchestra such as this is like an individual—it has a soul and body. Its soul is its musical qualities; its body is its financial support. Mr. Emil Oberhoffer, the conductor of the Minneapolis Symphony Orchestra, is the creator of its soul; while a group of public-spirited men and women of Minneapolis is the creator of its body. Minneapolis has a reason to be proud of its orchestra. It belongs in the same class with the Boston Symphony Orchestra and the Thomas Orchestra of Chicago. This is the second orchestra that has come to New York this season from cities to the westward; for a New York audience, as The Outlook has already recorded, had the privilege not long ago of hearing the Thomas Orchestra play under the direction of Mr. Stock. Not the least interesting feature of the visit of the Minneapolis Orchestra was its playing of the Brahms "First Symphony." Before the end of this season this symphony will have been played at least five times in New York—by the New York Philharmonic Orchestra under Mr. Stransky, by the Minneapolis Symphony Orchestra under Mr. Oberhoffer, by the Boston Symphony Orchestra under Mr. Fiedler, by the New York Symphony Orchestra under Mr. Walter Damrosch, and, this week, by the London Symphony Orchestra under Mr. Nikisch.

Incidentally, it is worth while to mention the programme book of the Minneapolis Orchestra. Too often notes on programmes are either gossipy or else imaginatively descriptive. Such notes would be much more useful if they followed the course pursued in the Minneapolis programme book. In that published for the concert in question the important themes of the symphony are not only mentioned, but are given in notation. There are nine musical examples printed. Even the most casual acquaintance with music would enable the reader of this book not only to appreciate the structure of the symphony as he hears it, but also to refresh his memory afterwards. These programme notes by Caryl B. Storrs are models of what such notes should be.

One other event of the musical season in New York deserves mention—the Brahms Festival given by the Symphony Society, Mr. Walter Damrosch conductor, and the Oratorio Society, Mr. Frank Damrosch conductor. The Festival consisted of four concerts, given during the week of March 25 to March 30, and included Brahms's four symphonies, his "Academic Overture," his "D Major Serenade," his "Violin Concerto," his "B Flat Pianoforte Concerto," a few of his songs, and three choral works—"Nänie," the "Triumphal Hymn," and the "German Requiem." The Damrosch brothers, like their father, Dr. Leopold Damrosch, have rendered a great service to the cause of music in the hurried commercial city of New York; and their work in conceiving and carrying out this Festival is in line with their record of what might be called musical statesmanship. Of the performance of orchestra and chorus in this Festival it would be easy to say a great deal in adverse criticism. Nothing is simpler than to note on the margin of a programme or a score roughness in attack, slips in intonation, infelicities in expression, and the like. Such things, however, are of little consequence beside the general effect produced. One who not only enjoys music, but finds in it the satisfactions of an art, could not fail, after hearing these four concerts, to have a new sense of gratitude to the genius of Brahms and a higher conception of the function of music in life.

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WHO IS A PROGRESSIVE?

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

AN ADDRESS AT LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY, APRIL 3

IN his recent speech at Philadelphia President Taft stated that he was a Progressive, and this raises the question as to what a Progressive is. More is involved than any man's say-so as to himself.

A well-meaning man may vaguely think of himself as a Progressive without having even the faintest conception of what a Progressive is. Both vision and intensity of conviction must go to the make-up of any man who is to lead the forward movement, and mildly good intentions are utterly useless as substitutes.

The essential difference, as old as civilized history, is between the men who, with fervor and broad sympathy and imagination, stand for the forward movement, the men who stand for the uplift and betterment of mankind, and who have faith in the people, on the one hand; and, on the other hand, the men of narrow vision and small sympathy, who are not stirred by the wrongs of others. With these latter stand also those other men who distrust the people, and many of whom not merely distrust the people, but wish to keep them helpless so as to exploit them for their own benefit.

The difference has never been more accurately set forth than in a lecture by the great English writer, Mr. J. A. Froude, delivered some forty-five years ago, and running as follows:

> Two kinds of men . . . appear as leaders in time of change. . . . On one side there are the . . . men who have no confidence in the people—who have no passionate convictions—men who believe that all wholesome reforms proceed downward from the educated to the multitudes; who regard with contempt, qualified by terror, appeals to the popular conscience or to popular intelligence.
>
> Opposite to these are the men of faith—and by faith I do not mean belief in dogmas, but belief in goodness, belief in justice, in righteousness. . . . They are not contented with looking for what may be useful or pleasant to themselves; they look by quite other methods for what is honorable, for what is good, for what is just. They believe that if they can find out that, then at all hazards, and in spite of all present consequences to themselves, that is to be preferred.
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> When the air is heavy with impostors, and men live only to make money, . . . and the kingdom of heaven is bought and sold, and all that is high and pure in man is smothered by corruption, fire of the same kind bursts out in higher natures with a fierceness which cannot be controlled; and, confident in truth and right, they call fearlessly on the seven thousand in Israel who have not bowed the knee to Baal to rise and stand by them.
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> They do not ask whether those whom they address have wide knowledge of history or science or philosophy; they ask rather that they shall be honest, that they shall be brave. . . . They know well that conscience is no exceptional privilege of the great or the cultivated, that to be generous and unselfish is no prerogative of rank or intellect.

We of to-day who stand for the Progressive movement here in the United States are not wedded to any particular kind of machinery, save solely as means to the end desired. Our aim is to secure the real and not the nominal rule of the people. With this purpose in view, we propose to do away with whatever in our government tends to secure to privilege, and to the great sinister special interests, a rampart from behind which they can beat back the forces that strive for social and industrial justice, and frustrate the will of the people.

For this purpose we believe in securing for the people the direct election of United States Senators, exactly as the people have already secured in actual practice the direct election of the President. We believe in securing for the people the right of nominating candidates for office, from the President down, by direct primaries, because the convention system, good in its day, has been twisted from its purpose, so that the delegates to the conventions, when chosen under the present methods by pressure of money and patronage, often deliberately misrepresent instead of representing the popular will. We believe in securing to the people the exercise of a real and not merely a nominal control over their representatives in office, this control to include the power to secure the enactment of laws which the people demand, and the rejection of laws to which the people are opposed, if, after due effort, it is found impossible to get from the Legis-

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lature and the courts a real representation of the deliberate popular judgment in these matters.

But these and kindred measures are merely machinery, and each community must judge for itself as to the machinery which its needs make necessary. The object, however, must be the same everywhere; that is, to give the people real control, and to have the people exercise this control in a spirit of the broadest sympathy and broadest desire to secure social and industrial justice for every man and woman, so that the work of all of us may be done and the lives of all of us lived under conditions which will tend to increase the dignity, the worth, and the efficiency of each individual.

If in any State the courts, in addition to doing justice in the ordinary cases between man and man, have striven to help and not hamper the people in their efforts to secure social and industrial justice in a far broader sense for the people as a whole, then in that community there may be no need for change as regards them. But where, in any community, as in my own State of New York, for instance, the highest court of the State, because of its adherence to outworn, to dead and gone systems of philosophy, and its lack of understanding of and sympathy with the living, the vital needs of those in the community whose needs are greatest, becomes a bulwark of privilege and the most effective of all means for preventing the people from working in efficient fashion for true justice, then I hold that the people must themselves be given the power, after due deliberation and in Constitutional fashion, to have their judgment made efficient and their interpretation of the Constitution made binding upon their servants the judges no less than upon their servants the legislators and executives.

Every man who fights fearlessly and effectively against special privilege in any form is to that extent a Progressive. Every man who, directly or indirectly, upholds privilege and favors the special interests, whether he acts from evil motives or merely because he is puzzle-headed or dull of mental vision or lacking in social sympathy, or whether he simply lacks interest in the subject, is a reactionary.

Every man is to that extent a Progressive if he stands for any form of social justice, whether it be securing proper protection for factory girls against dangerous machinery, for securing a proper limitation of hours of labor for women and children in industry, for securing proper living conditions for those who dwell in the thickly crowded regions of our great cities, for helping, so far as legislators can help, all the conditions of work and life for wage-workers in great centers of industry, or for helping by the action both of the National and State governments, so far as conditions will permit, the men and women who dwell in the open country to increase their efficiency both in production on their farms and in business arrangements for the marketing of their produce, and also to increase the opportunities to give the best possible expression to their social life. The man is a reactionary, whatever may be his professions and no matter how excellent his intentions, who opposes these movements, or who, if in high place, takes no interest in them and does not earnestly lead them forward.

When, in deference to the reactionaries in Congress, the President put a stop to the work of the Country Life Commission, so that for three years the National Government has done little but mark time, or indeed to step backward, as regards this movement, then, no matter how good his intentions, his actions ranged him against the Progressive side. When the President supports those courts which declare that the people have no power to do social justice by enacting laws such as those I have above outlined, and when he opposes the effort to give to the sober judgment of the people due effect, as against the decisions of a reactionary court, then he shows himself a reactionary.

When the President characterizes a moderate proposal to render effective the sober judgment of the American people, as against indefensible and reactionary court decisions in favor of the privileged classes, as "laying the ax at the foot of the tree of well-ordered freedom," then the President is standing against the sane and moderate movement for social justice; he is standing in favor of privilege; and he thereby ranks himself against the Progressives, against the cause of justice for the helpless and the wronged, and on the side of the reactionaries, on the side of the beneficiaries of privilege and injustice.

Four years ago the Progressives supported Mr. Taft for President, and he was opposed by such representatives of special privilege as Mr. Penrose of Pennsylvania, Mr. Aldrich of Rhode Island, Mr. Gallinger of New Hampshire, and Messrs. Lorimer, Cannon,

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and McKinley of Illinois; and he was opposed by practically all the men of the stamp of Messrs. Guggenheim and Evans in Colorado, Mr. Cox in Ohio, and Mr. Patrick Calhoun of San Francisco. These men were not Progressives then, and they do not pretend to be Progressives now. But, unlike the President, they know who is a Progressive and who is not. They know that he is not a Progressive. Their judgment in this matter is good. After three and a half years of association with and knowledge of the President, these and their fellows are now the President's chief supporters; and they and the men who feel and act as they do in business and in politics give him the great bulk of his strength. The President says that he is a Progressive. These men know him well and have studied his actions for three years, and they regard him as being precisely the kind of Progressive whom they approve—that is, as not a Progressive at all.

Now, the progressiveness that meets and merits the cordial approval of these gentlemen is not the kind of progressiveness which we on our side champion. However good the President's intentions, I believe that his actions have shown that he is entitled to the support of precisely these men. Take the most important bit of legislation enacted by the last Republican Congress—the Rate Bill. When this bill was submitted by the Administration, it was a thoroughly mischievous measure, which would have undone the good work that has been accomplished in the control of the great railways during the last twenty years. In that shape it was reported out of the Senate committee by its ardent champion, Senator Aldrich. In that shape it was championed by all the representatives of privilege and special interest, and it received the earnest support of all those gentlemen whom I have mentioned who had it in their power to give such support.

But the Progressives in the Senate amended the bill, against the determined opposition of the reactionary friends of the Administration. They made it a good bill by striking out the chief features of the bill as the reactionaries framed it. They made but one mistake. They left in the bill the provision for a Commerce Court; and in its actual workings this feature of the bill has proved thoroughly mischievous, and should be repealed.

The gentlemen in question and their allies cordially approve the administration of the Pure Food and Drugs Bill during the last three years, which has resulted in Dr. Wiley's resigning, because, as he says in print, the situation has become intolerable, and "the fundamental principles of the Food and Drugs Act had one by one been paralyzed and discredited." He specifically mentioned among the interests engaged in the manufacture of misbranded or adulterated foods which had escaped from the control of the Bureau the interests engaged in "the manufacture of so-called whisky from alcohol, colors, and flavors." The gentlemen I have named and the great interests back of them, and their allies, like Mr. Tawney, of Minnesota, were responsible for the President's abandoning the Country Life and Conservation Commissions, which had cost the Government nothing and had rendered invaluable service to the country; and they also cordially approved the nomination of Mr. Ballinger to the position of Secretary of the Interior.

For two years the Administration did everything in its power to undo the most valuable work that had been done in Conservation, especially in securing to the people the right to regulate water power franchise in the public interest. This effort became so flagrant and the criticism so universal that it was finally abandoned even by the Administration itself. As for the efforts to secure social justice in industrial matters, by securing child labor legislation, for instance, the Administration simply abandoned them completely.

Alike in its action and in its inaction, the conduct of the Administration during the last three years has been such as to merit the support and approval of Messrs. Aldrich, Gallinger, Penrose, Lorimer, Cox, Guggenheim, and the other gentlemen I have mentioned. I do not wonder that they support it, but I do not regard an Administration which has merited and which receives such support as being entitled to call itself Progressive, no matter with what elasticity the word may be stretched.

No men have been closer or more interested students of the career of President Taft than these men, no men better understand its real significance, no men better appreciate what the effect of the continuance of this Administration for another four years would mean. I believe that their judgment upon the Administration and upon what its continuance would mean to the people can be accepted, and I think that their judgment, as shown by the extreme recklessness of their actions in trying to secure the President's renomination, gives us an accurate gauge as to what the

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Administration merits from the people, and what the action of the people should be.

There is no question that in many States these gentlemen and those now allied with them are well aware that the majority of the people are against them, but they have set themselves to work by hook or by crook to overcome that majority. Under ordinary circumstances, in an ordinary political contest among politicians of substantially the same stamp, they would undoubtedly prefer to follow the majority of the people. They do not do so in this instance because they realize fully that the interests they champion are antagonistic to the interests of the people, and that on this occasion the line-up is clean-cut between the people on one side, and on the other the political bosses and all who represent special privilege and the evil alliance of big business with politics.

The Republican party is now facing a great crisis. It is to decide whether it will be, as in the days of Lincoln, the party of the plain people, the party of progress, the party of social and industrial justice; or whether it will be the party of privilege and of special interests, the heir to those who were Lincoln's most bitter opponents, the party that represents the great interests within and without Wall Street which desire through their control over the servants of the public to be kept immune from punishment when they do wrong and to be given privileges to which they are not entitled.

The big business concern that is both honest and far-sighted will, I believe, in the end favor our effort to secure thoroughgoing supervision and control over industrial big business, just as we have now secured it over the business of inter-State transportation and the business of banking under the National law. We do not propose to do injustice to any man, but we do propose adequately to guarantee the people against injustice by the mighty corporations which make up the predominant and characteristic feature of modern industrial life.

Prosperity can permanently come to this country only on a basis of honesty and of fair treatment for all. Those men of enormous wealth who bitterly oppose every species of effective control by the people, through their Governmental agents, over the business use of that wealth are, I verily believe, most short-sighted as to their own ultimate interests. They should welcome such effort, they should welcome every effort to make them observe and to assist them in observing the law, so that their activities shall be helpful and not harmful to the American people. Most surely if the wise and moderate control we advocate does not come, then some day these men or their descendants will have to face the chance of some movement of really dangerous and drastic character being directed against them.

The very wealthy men who oppose this action illustrate the undoubted truth that some of the men who have the money touch, some of the men who can amass enormous fortunes, possess an ability as specialized and non-indicative of other forms of ability as the ability to play chess exceptionally well, or to add up four columns of figures at once. The men of wealth of this type are not only hostile to the interests of the country, but hostile to their own interests; their great business ability is unaccompanied by even the slightest ability to read the signs of the times or understand the temper of the American people.

I stand for the adequate control, the real control, of all big business, and especially of all monopolistic big business where it proves unwise or impossible to break up the monopoly.

There is a grim irony in the effect that has been produced upon Wall Street by the complete breakdown of the prosecutions against various trusts, notably the Standard Oil and Tobacco Trusts, under the Sherman Law. I have always insisted that, while the Sherman Law should be kept upon the books so as to be used wherever possible against monopoly, yet that it is by itself wholly unable to afford the relief demanded by the American people as against all the great corporations actually or potentially guilty of anti-social practices. Wall Street was at first flurried by the decisions in the Oil and Tobacco Trust cases. But as regards the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, Wall Street has now caught up with the Administration.

The President has expressed his entire satisfaction with the Anti-Trust Law, and now that the result of the prosecutions under it has been to strengthen the Standard Oil and Tobacco Trusts, to increase the value of their stocks, and, at least in the case of the Standard Oil, to increase the price to the consumer, Wall Street is also showing in practical fashion its satisfaction with the workings of the law, by its antagonism to us who intend to establish a real control of big

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business which shall not harm legitimate business, but shall really, and not nominally, put a stop to the evil practices of evil combinations.

The President has stated that he distrusts "impulsive action" by the public. I certainly greatly prefer deliberate action by the public, and in every proposal I have ever made I have always provided for such deliberate action. But I prefer even impulsive action by the public to action by the politicians against the interests of the public, whether this action be taken in tricky haste or with tricky deliberation. The President has warned us against soap-box primaries. At least these primaries are better than the primaries which represented the "impulsive action" of the postmasters in States like Georgia, Florida, and South Carolina, when these "impulsive" postmasters held their conventions at the earliest possible date, so as to affect the result in other States of the Union where there is a genuine Republican party.

I see by the press that in your own State [Kentucky] the postmasters have been warned to resign their leadership in the party committees; but, if the statements in the press are correct, the resignations are not demanded with any "impulsiveness." On the contrary, they have been asked with such leisurely deliberation that the day for holding the primaries will have passed before the request becomes effective. Now, gentlemen, if the newspaper reports are correct, such a request is a good deal worse than a sham.

We are in a period of change; we are fronting a great period of further change. Never was the need more imperative for men of vision who are also men of action. Disaster is ahead of us if we trust to the leadership of the men whose hearts are seared and whose eyes are blinded, who believe that we can find safety in dull timidity and dull action. The unrest cannot be quieted by the ingenious trickery of those who profess to advance by merely marking time. It cannot be quieted by demanding only the prosperity which is to come to those who have much, in such quantity that some will drift through to those who have little. There must be material prosperity; they are enemies of all of us who wantonly or unwisely interfere with or disregard it; but it can come in permanent shape only if obtained in accordance with and not against the spirit of justice and of righteousness.

Clouds hover about the horizon throughout the civilized world. But here in America the fault is our own if the sky above us is not clear. We have a continent on which to work out our destiny. Our people, our men and women, are fit to face the mighty days. If we fail, the failure will be lamentable; for not only shall we fail for ourselves, but our failure will wreck the fond desires of all throughout the world who look toward us with the eager hope that here, in this great Republic, it shall be proved, from ocean to ocean, that the people can rule themselves, and, thus ruling, can give liberty and do justice both to themselves and to others.

The present contest is but a phase of the larger struggle. Assuredly the fight will go on. Our opponents, representing the brute power of ceded privilege, can win only by using the led captains of mercenary politics, and the crooked financiers who stand behind those led captains, and those newspapers which those financiers and politicians own, influence, or control. They can win only by playing upon the timidity or the shortsightedness or the mere lack of knowledge of worthy citizens, and by misleading them into supporting for the moment the powers that prey, the powers of pillage, the dread powers that exploit the people for their own purpose, and that turn popular government into a sinister sham.

Certain big men, who, alas! have sometimes perverted the courts to their own uses, now tell us that it is impious to speak of the people's insisting upon justice being done by the courts. We answer that with all our might we will uphold the courts against lawlessness; and that we also intend to see that in their turn the courts give justice to all. We say, in the words of Lincoln, that we must prevent wrong "being done either by Congress or courts. The people of these United States are rightful masters of both Congress and courts, not to overthrow the Constitution, but to overthrow the men who pervert the Constitution."

Again, Lincoln stated our case to-day when he said, in the course of his joint debate with Douglas, "That is the real issue. That is the issue which will continue in this country when these poor tongues of Judge Douglas and myself shall be silent. It is the eternal struggle between these two principles—right and wrong—throughout the world. They are the two principles that have stood face to face from the beginning of time. The one is the common right of humanity, the other 'the divine right of kings.' It is the same principle in whatever shape it develops itself. It

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is the same spirit that says, 'You toil and work and earn bread and I'll eat it.' No matter in what shape it comes, whether from the mouth of a king who bestrides the people of his own nation and lives from the fruit of their labor, or from one race of men as an apology for enslaving another race, it is the same tyrannical principle."

And of course this applies no more to the slave-owner or to the foreign despot than to the present-day American citizen who oppresses others by the abuse of special privilege, be his wealth great or little, be he the multi-millionaire owner of railways and mines and factories who forgets his duties to those who earn him his bread while earning their own, or be he only the owner of a foul little sweatshop in which he grinds dollars from the excessive and underpaid labor of haggard women.

We who stand for the cause of progress, for the cause of the uplift of humanity and the betterment of mankind, are pledged to eternal war against tyranny and wrong, by the few or by the many, by a plutocracy or by a mob. We stand for justice and for fair play; fearless and confident we face the coming years, for we know that ours are the banners of justice and that all men who wish well to the people must fight under them. We fight to make this country a better place to live in for those who have been harshly treated by fate; and if we succeed, it will also be a better place to live in for those who have been well treated. None of us can really prosper permanently if masses of our fellows are debased and degraded, if masses of men and women are ground down and forced to lead starved and sordid lives, so that their souls are crippled like their bodies and the fine edge of their every feeling is blunted.

I ask that those of us to whom Providence, to whom fate, has been kind, remember that each must be his brother's keeper, and that all must feel their obligation to the less fortunate who work beside us in the strain and press of our eager modern life. I ask justice for the weak for their sakes, and I ask it also for the sake of our own children, and of our children's children who are to come after us. This country will not be a good place for any of us to live in if it is not a reasonably good place for all of us to live in. When I plead the cause of the crippled brakeman on a railway, of the overworked girl in a factory, of the stunted child toiling at inhuman labor, of all who work excessively or in unhealthy surroundings, of the family dwelling in the squalor of a noisome tenement, of the worn-out farmer in regions where the farms are worn out also; when I protest against the unfair profits of unscrupulous and conscienceless men, or against the greedy exploitation of the helpless by the beneficiaries of privilege—in all these cases I am not only fighting for the weak, I am also fighting for the strong. The sons of all of us will pay in the future if we of the present do not do justice in the present. If the fathers cause others to eat bitter bread, the teeth of their own sons shall be set on edge. Our cause is the cause of justice for all, in the interest of all. Surely there was never a more noble cause; surely there was never a cause in which it was better worth while to spend and be spent.

MUSIC AT TWILIGHT

BY HERMANN HAGEDORN

Twilight, and now the day
Ends as the day began—
Purple and gold for the heart,
Stars for the soul of man.

Dawn saw the toil begin,
Dusk sees the toil fulfilled—
Now let there be music and song
Till the fevered blood be stilled.

Not passionate thunders of sound,
Nor statelier measures sage,
But the melodies borne on the lips
Of children from age to age.

With the tinkle of bells in the notes,
And dew of the fields on the words—
Immortal as dawn and dusk,
And pure as the songs of the birds.

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A TRUST MAN ON TRUSTS

AN INTERVIEW WITH LOUIS ARTHUR COOLIDGE BY FRANCIS E. LEUPP

FOR efficiency without bustle, none of the younger group of men upon whom President Roosevelt threw large responsibilities during the last half of his Administration made a more excellent record than Louis Arthur Coolidge, who for about a year, but a very momentous year, was the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury in charge of the financial branch of the work there. It was he who had the handling of the redemption of nearly $14,000,000 of the three per cent one-year emergency certificates of 1907, which had to be accomplished during the money stringency that followed the panic of 1907. The Government was in no position to pay out cash, but by a quiet negotiation with the banks, resulting in their retirement of more than $13,000,000 of currency issued against the certificates as security, and the substitution of bonds for the balance held for the same purpose, the whole business was put through with scarcely any actual expenditure.

Another feat was the issue of $30,000,000 of Panama Canal bonds, under regulations devised so as practically to eliminate the speculative feature which had marked most former issues of Government securities. The subscription was triple the amount of the bonds, and the whole lot were awarded at an average premium of almost 2½ per cent. Still another record was won on the rapid working over of 9,000 steel plates and the printing of $610,000,000 of paper currency for emergency circulation under the Vreeland Act.

It was during Mr. Coolidge's administration, too, that the Government depositaries in various parts of the country were put to a test like a gun drill on a man-of-war or a practice fire-alarm in a public school. Eight hundred banks having as much as $50,000 apiece of public funds on deposit were suddenly called upon to return $5,000 each to the Treasury. The experiment not only woke up the sleepy banks, and brought all kinds to a realization that the Government meant what it said in making these deposits subject to demand without date, but it furnished the Treasury authorities with a lot of valuable object-lessons, which they were able to use to advantage in a reorganization of the deposit system on a safer and more practical basis than before.

Here were but a few samples of the special tasks which fell to this Assistant Secretary's share during his brief term in office, and which were carried to successful completion with so little advertising or other disturbance of the surface of affairs that the present lines will convey to many a reader his first information of whose was the directing mind behind them. Before entering office Mr. Coolidge's chief occupation had been journalism, for which he had fitted himself for a high rank by five years' training, after his graduation at Harvard University, on the staff of the Springfield "Republican." Since returning to private life he has been the treasurer of the United Shoe Machinery Corporation, a fact which may explain in some measure the intensity of his views on the difference between the original purpose of the Sherman Act and its recent employment by the Department of Justice, as well as of the methods pursued by that Department in gathering material for the support of its trust prosecutions.

These, it may be said in passing, are two phases of the uppermost topic of the day which few men in his position are willing to discuss in public as fearlessly as Mr. Coolidge. When I asked him what he thought about the business situation, he replied: "Business is all right. The country was never before so prosperous as now. Productive capacity was never so great and wages were never so high. The average man gets more for his money in the United States to-day than ever

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before anywhere in the history of the world. Of course it costs more to live than it used to, but people have more comforts and have more to live on. There is a lot of talk about the high cost of living, and the people who do most of the talking are especially venomous against the very agencies which are doing most to lower the cost of living by reducing the price of commodities—the big industrial corporations. They seem to forget that it would be easy enough to lower the cost of living if we lowered the cost of labor and the standard of living all along the line. Nobody wants to do that, but until it is done it is useless to expect much from other remedies, for at best they can be only superficial. We have been so long in the hands of quacks that many of us have an idea that we are suffering from an organic disease, when, in fact, there is nothing the matter with us except indigestion caused by over-indulgence, and all we need is a little rest and careful nursing. It may be a good thing for us to be put upon simple diet for a while; and that is likely to happen, whether we want it or not, before we get back to the normal. Sooner or later we shall pull out all right, just as we pulled out after the Greenback, Free Silver, Free Trade, and Populist epidemics."

"A great many people," I remarked, "seem to think there is something new in the experience we are passing through."

"They are wrong," said Mr. Coolidge. "It is as old as politics; and, whatever comes out of the present commotion, we shall have revivals of it in some form or other as long as politics lasts. Daniel Webster said something in 1838 which is just as pertinent now as it was then:

> "There are persons who constantly clamor. They complain of oppression, speculation, and the pernicious influence of accumulated wealth. They cry out loudly against all banks and corporations, and all means by which small capitals become united in order to produce important and beneficial results. They carry on mad hostility against all established institutions. They would choke the fountain of industry and dry all the streams. In a country of unbounded liberty they clamor against oppression. In a country of perfect equality they would move heaven and earth against privilege and monopoly. In a country where property is more evenly divided than anywhere else, they rend the air shouting agrarian doctrines. In a country where the wages of labor are high beyond parallel, they would teach the laborer that he is but an oppressed slave.

"Just at present there is a wild outcry against what is called 'big business.' The same sort of people who were so busy in Webster's day, who for a few years after the Civil War emitted loud noises against the National banks, who later clamored for unlimited issues of greenbacks, said horrible things about the 'crime of 1873,' and frightened children with bedtime stories about the railways, have now turned their attention to the industrial corporations which have grown so successful and effective within the last twenty years. They are not the majority of the people, although some of our political leaders seem to think they are. They do not belong, as a rule, either to the capitalistic or to the working class. They are, almost without exception, the drones of society, who have nothing on earth to do except to interfere with the activities of the workers. Labor and capital understand each other pretty well, and can get along all right if they are let alone, but they cannot be expected to work together to the best advantage so long as they are bothered by irritating parasites."

"Do you, then, consider the troubles which confront us now as due chiefly to the stirring up of grievances which have no substantial existence?"

"The present unrest is due in a great measure to self-advertising 'lawyers of the people,' labor agitators, politicians, and writers to whom it furnishes a means of livelihood or of political preferment. It is almost safe to say that none of these is working without a selfish motive, except perhaps a few well-meaning young men of wealthy parentage and an inadequate sense of humor, who have not yet solved the problem of their correct adjustment to the universe. We don't hear about many cases of personal sacrifice for the good of the people on the part of those who are so deeply moved by the people's wrongs. The real workingmen are not joining in the excitement to an appreciable extent. They are reasonably content, and most of them would like to be let alone. They are consumers, but they are producers too, and they realize the value of having work to do and a chance to earn wages. We have had altogether too much talk in late years about the wrong done the consumer. Isn't it about time to give the producer his day in court?"

"How would you set the limit to governmental interference in such matters?"

"The object of legislation ought to be the greatest good to the greatest number. When it touches trade, it should aim to secure the lowest possible prices for commodities com-

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mensurate with the highest possible wages and the greatest possible comfort to the laboring man and a reasonable return to capital. Under the existing industrial system in the United States we come nearer to this ideal condition than any people ever before in recorded history; and how the great corporations have borne the giant's share in bringing this condition about I have already shown. The whole tendency of their operations has been to raise the standard of living and lower its relative expense.

"What are we offered in the place of this? With all the activity of the Department of Justice, with all the boasting about the enforcement of the Sherman Law, with all the recital of long lists of prosecutions and of successful litigation, the cost of living has not been reduced a cent, no article of commerce has been made less expensive to the purchaser. Nobody has been benefited except the lawyers, the agitators, and the politicians. We are sacrificing the advantages we have without gaining anything in return, ostensibly in order that some fabulous person may have an imaginary opportunity to engage in business which he may not be qualified to conduct successfully even with unhampered competition; and all this simply to satisfy an unthinking clamor against big business, just because it is big!"

"Do you consider the law itself or the manner of its administration the worse obstacle to progress?"

"Perhaps the most serious problem is presented by the course of the Department of Justice in trying to enforce the law. Under the new order the Department has developed into a detective bureau. Now the professional detective or 'spotter' may be a very useful member of society at times, but it doesn't seem quite the thing to turn over to him the conduct of business on the successful management of which depend so largely the commercial prosperity of the country and the welfare of hundreds of thousands of working people and holders of industrial securities.

"Yet that is about the situation to-day. I don't believe the people, as a rule, have any adequate conception of the lengths to which these inquiries have gone. Attorney-General Wickersham has said that there were a hundred corporations doing business to-day in violation of the Sherman Law, and it is safe to assume that many of these corporations are at this moment undergoing investigation at his hands, because he believes he has in his possession facts which justify it. Think what that involves: some sort of inquiry in each instance with the idea of filing suits, either civil or criminal, against the corporation concerned. In most cases the inquiry is secret, every effort being made to prevent the corporation's getting wind of it. In others, where a corporation has found out by chance what was going on, it has invited the officers of the Department to go through its books, and has thrown open to it every practicable facility. I know of several cases in which this was done at great expense to the corporations, whose managers, confident that their business had been conducted along legitimate lines, were foolish enough to imagine that the Department, once in possession of all the facts, would be satisfied. They misconceived its attitude entirely. The things which made in a corporation's favor were ignored, and the worst possible construction was put upon every document or record, no matter how innocent. That is the detective's attitude. His work is destructive, or it is a failure from his point of view.

"'They who drink beer think beer,' says the German proverb. The man whose mind is always on other people's crimes is likely to overstep truth and justice in trying to get damaging evidence. One of the best traction companies in the United States refuses knowingly to employ a professional detective among its corps of ununiformed inspectors. The average well-meaning conductor or motorman sometimes makes a slip for which he needs discipline, not prosecution; but the trained sleuth reads criminal intent into any such mischance. Against the injustice involved in this presumption that every man is a crook unless proved innocent, the enlightened corporation president protects his employees; but when his own turn comes, there is nobody to protect him. Functionaries of the Department of Justice are sent out, like so many Pinkerton men, to 'get,' if possible, heads of corporations who are employing able lawyers for the express purpose of avoiding even a technical violation of the law. Failure to 'get,' in such circumstances, is, from the professional point of view, to 'fall down on the job.'"

"Is not this detective feature a comparative novelty?"

"In its present importance, yes. A detective force was made a permanent fixture of the Department by Attorney-General Bona-

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parte, who recommended its establishment in his annual report of December 2, 1907, calling the attention of Congress 'to the circumstance that the Department of Justice has no executive force and, more particularly, no permanent detective force under its immediate control.' Under Mr. Bonaparte's supervision, in 1908, there was organized the special bureau of investigation which has since been used as a means of giving the Department powers never contemplated at its creation. Congress has gradually increased the appropriations for the Department without specifically authorizing any revolutionary change in its methods, and more than a million dollars has been expended in trust prosecutions since 1908. I doubt whether Mr. Bonaparte himself realized the dangers of thus endowing the Department with a standing army of 'plain-clothes men.' The eagerness with which these detectives have in the last two or three years swarmed over law-abiding communities, gathering what purports to be evidence, gossiping with clerks and stenographers and discharged employees, piecing together scraps of unrelated correspondence, and parading as proved facts the prejudiced statements and insinuations of competitors in trade, would be intolerable, even if it were not directed by a mistaken notion of governmental regulation of business, and attended with disastrous effects on the stability and progress of financial institutions.

"The kind of governmental supervision to which commercial affairs have lately been subjected is wrong in principle and irresponsible in operation. It is contrary to the old-fashioned American ideas of government to subject private business to the same espionage the police give to a band of criminal suspects. It is a development of State Socialism in peculiarly obnoxious form. One of its effects is to encroach on the recognized domain of local self-government. The American theory has always been that a man doing business in a given neighborhood is known to his associates and competitors, and that, if he sins persistently, or even occasionally, against the criminal code, his sin and the District Attorney will find him out."

"Is not the activity of the Federal authorities due to the fact that the offenses charged transcend local boundaries?"

"Granting that, the methods remain still unjustified. If we are going to modify the old theory we should do it so that the individual citizen, rich or poor, will be at least as well protected as before against unnecessary assaults upon his personal reputation in advance of proof of guilt. The intervention of the Department of Justice, acting generally on anonymous complaints and seeking to enforce a law whose interpretation has puzzled skilled lawyers for twenty years, removes this protection from any one unfortunate enough to be prominent in the affairs of a corporation doing inter-State business, and subjects him to prosecution instead. To spy on such a man, attorneys are sent with trained sleuths at their command. After their 'investigation' the manipulation of the grand jury by Government agents has become so common that it is accepted as a matter of course. The proper function of a grand jury is to determine, from careful inspection of well-digested data, whether there is sufficient presumptive evidence of the commission of crime to warrant an indictment. Yet in cases prosecuted under the Sherman Act, attorneys of the prospective prosecution appear before the grand jury to explain and interpret the evidence submitted, to inflame the jurors' prejudices, and otherwise to secure the advantages of a preliminary trial at which only one side of a case is presented. The jury is expected to indict without regard to the evidence submitted if the prosecuting officer sees a political advantage in asking for such action. In at least one instance with which I am familiar a Federal grand jury took less than half an hour to consider the acceptance of indictments which would have required more than an hour merely to read through; and the publicity given to these, whatever may be the outcome of the trial, was in the nature of a serious attack on the good-will and credit of an important industrial organization, and a wanton reflection on the reputation of the officers indicted, who are men of a character so high that no amount of money could induce one of them to do a dishonorable thing."

"Do you regard the present administration of the Sherman Act as out of keeping with the purpose for which it was passed?"

"I do. The purpose of the Sherman Act was not to give to the inefficient and uneconomical manufacturer an advantage over his cleverer competitor, or to give precedence to one form of business organization over another, but to protect the great consuming

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public by preventing extortionate prices. The prices of most articles produced by the so-called 'trusts' are generally known or can easily be ascertained; it does not take a detective to find them out. The act was inspired by a popular apprehension that corporations engaged in business naturally competitive would get together to raise prices. Throughout the Congressional debates preceding its passage the complaints against the Beef Trust, the Standard Oil Trust, the Steel Trust, the Barbed Wire Fencing Trust, the Sugar Trust, the Cordage Trust, the Cottonseed Oil Trust, and the Whisky Trust related wholly to the power which these combinations were supposed to exercise over prices, an offense which, if it existed at all, would be a matter of public knowledge. No one suggested that any elaborate system of inquisition would be necessary in order to enforce the Act.

"The Government spent thousands of dollars for detectives, 'investigators,' and secret agents to ferret out matters relating to the internal organizations of the Standard Oil and American Tobacco Companies; yet the Supreme Court, in dissolving these concerns, rested its decisions, not on any of the intricacies of their organization, but on acts of theirs which were, and always had been, generally known—acts committed openly, involving prices and the power over prices. The need of an elaborate detective force arose only after the law had been perverted from its original purpose of protecting consumers against extortionate prices and turned into a weapon against certain technical forms of business organization. It was not till then that the necessity for secret agents and spies was discovered."

"Was this method of proceeding without precedent?"

"Not quite. The Government had been obliged to adopt it in procuring evidence on which to prosecute violations of the law against railway rebates. Here the Government had to use detectives because it had no other means of ascertaining the secret transactions between the companies and sundry favored shippers. But no such condition has existed in respect to the Sherman Act, since, as I have said, the power exercised over prices by combinations of capital is necessarily a matter of public knowledge. The failure to recognize this difference will account, I suppose, for the ultra-Russian spy system we are witnessing in operation to-day.

"In Canada and Australia they do better. Laws there for the regulation of trusts are by no means perfect, and some of the machinery for their enforcement is crude and unjust; but they have one point of superiority in stating, as they do in plain language, that their purpose is solely to protect the consumer and the public. The Canadian law, for example, provides that a combination which has, or is designed to have, an effect on prices, or to restrict competition, or to control production, shall be punished only if it is 'to the detriment of consumers or producers of such article of trade or commerce.' There is no room here for detectives.

"Prosecutions under this law can be begun only on recommendation of a duly constituted board of investigation before which all parties have the privilege of producing evidence. Some such plan might perhaps be adopted in this country in order to save the Department of Justice from the persistent importunities of malicious or discontented persons who, under the cloak of secrecy, urge it to begin prosecutions on frivolous and technical grounds. The Sherman Act, in its present form, provides that any aggrieved party may himself begin an action in which, if successful, he is awarded threefold damages. This ought to be enough to induce any person who really believes himself injured by the operation of a trust to begin action on his own account without troubling the Department of Justice; for if his belief is confirmed by the result of the litigation, his indemnification is enormous.

"So it would doubtless have surprised the authors of the Sherman Act to be told that substantially no suits would be brought under it by individuals, but that every one who considered himself injured would turn to the Government for assistance, and that in almost every instance the Government would consent to play the complainant, although the language of the act indicates that it was expected to furnish a means for individuals to protect themselves!"

"And what is your idea of a remedy for this condition of affairs?"

"After all I have said, you surely do not expect me to suggest a remedy? Too many remedies have been suggested already. Any one of them would require more legislation, and one of our great troubles to-day is too much legislation. We have suffered beyond measure at the hands of garrulous executives

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and harebrained legislatures, obsessed with a conceit for 'relieving the situation.' There is just one form of relief which is worth serious consideration, and that is to divorce business from politics. This has been suggested before; but it seems never to occur to some people that you can't have a divorce which doesn't apply to both parties. If we have politics in business, we are bound to have business in politics. There is no escape from that proposition. You can't revise the tariff without having the people whose livelihood depends upon protected industries take part in the discussion; and you can't strike at corporations through legislation or executive action without exciting their vigorous interest and provoking political activity on the part of the men who are responsible for their management.

"On the other hand, we ought to take out of the hands of a political officer like the Attorney-General the power to initiate prosecutions by which political capital may be made. It cannot be asserted too often that the business men of to-day recognize a higher standard of business morality than their predecessors, who were engaged in cutthroat competition. The petty meannesses of trade, as well as the questionable acts, date, as a rule, from the era of unrestricted competition, being almost inseparable from the conditions which then prevailed. The consolidations we have witnessed have tended to eliminate those conditions. For one thing, in so-called 'big business' there is not the same temptation to the practice of irregular methods which confronted the business man of, say, fifty years ago, who was struggling for existence against almost overwhelming odds. As there is less temptation, there is less excuse. The men who carry on the affairs of our great corporations feel much the same pride in them as the executive head of a great Department of the Government feels in that. In a way, these giant enterprises are public institutions, and those who are connected with them feel a commensurate responsibility, not only to the stockholders whose fortunes are in their keeping, and to the working people whose health, happiness, and means of subsistence depend on their successful management, but to the great public beyond both."

"Does not this mean a demand for publicity?"

"Unquestionably. And the men in control of the great corporations realize that fact. Secrecy is imperative where individuals are competing with each other in a hand-to-hand struggle for trade. It becomes less imperative as competition diminishes. The public feels that it has a right to information in regard to the conduct of big business; and with such a feeling prevalent, a degree of publicity is inevitable. But it does not follow that the public should take a hand in running the business. You cannot carry on a corporation as you would carry on a town meeting. Its successful management demands executive capacity of a high order, thorough familiarity with business methods, and a capacity for quick action in emergencies which comes only from lifelong experience. It would cast a blight on all business to make its conduct subject to popular whim, or to hamper the movements of its responsible directors by requiring them to refer their important projects to outside arbiters for approval.

"And don't lose sight of the fact that there may easily be such a thing as too much publicity. It sounds well; but see what it involves. It would augment the army of non-producers, and would divert the attention of the producers from their legitimate work. We should have a swarm of Federal employees ferreting out the operations of business concerns and tabulating the results, and we should have the best men in every corporation devoting a considerable part of their time to explaining the intricacies of its business to the inquisitors. It takes only a minute for a young man with nothing else on his mind to ask a question which may take a week to answer understandingly. Even under present conditions the higher officers of many corporations, from the president down, sacrifice time, patience, and nervous energy in trying to comply with the requirements of Government bureaus and investigating committees. What it would be with an elaborate system of publicity in force it is distressing to contemplate. We should be approaching a state of society where half the people would find their only occupation in keeping tab on the rest."

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SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT IN THE HOME

BY JOHN B. GUERNSEY

IN THE SERIES ON HOME-MAKING THE WOMAN'S PROFESSION

CANNOT the management of the average household be conducted as a business proposition? If it can be, will it not mean the solution of the servant problem that is such an important factor in the increasing cost of living? A study of the subject seems to indicate that it will, and that enormous economies can be effected by the application of the principles of modern business management to the business affairs of the home. Conceding the well-established fact that the factory and the shop are attracting the most capable girls from domestic service, it is patent that the conditions surrounding the latter employment must be made even more attractive than are those of the shop in order to recover the ground that has already been lost. No business can succeed permanently unless it can attract and hold a desirable class of labor, and, if the household is to be conducted scientifically, it must prepare to meet the same problems.

Scientific management is saving some of the larger corporations and the railways millions of dollars a year through economies and better methods. It is a science based on definite principles, and these principles can be applied as well to the management of the home as to the management of business enterprises. The problems to be solved are problems of application rather than of principle.

Given a certain piece of work, its completion may be accomplished through a variety of methods, and, by means of varying instrumentalities, in greater or less time; but there is, generally speaking, one scientific method and one *best* instrumentality. Also, a first-class worker can accomplish a specific task in a certain time, calculated to a certainty by means of an accurate analysis of its elements and a study of the time actually necessary for each step. Such are, in brief, the premises on which to build a method of scientific household management.

THE PRINCIPLES

The principles may be stated as follows:

1. Realization of the essential operations involved in household management, and the elimination of the non-essentials; and the development, from the laws governing the above, of a true science.
2. Scientific selection of the workers.
3. Scientific education and development of such workers.
4. Intimate, friendly co-operation between the management and the workers.

Essential to the success of the plan is a common-sense observation of these:

1. Definite plans and ideals.
2. Competent guidance.
3. Discipline.
4. The fair deal.
5. Reliable records.
6. Standardized conditions and operations.
7. Standardized instructions for carrying out the operations.
8. Rewards for efficient work and the attaining of the standards.

ESSENTIAL OPERATIONS

In considering just what are the essential operations of the typical household, there should first be a clear perception of the difference between the duties of the mother and the duties of the housekeeper. That the mother is so often the housekeeper, or, for the present purpose, that the housekeeper is so often the mother, makes this distinction rather confusing at first thought. But, eliminating the mother duties, after all, the purpose of the home is to provide food and shelter and a headquarters for the family. What, then, are the essential operations necessary to the fulfillment of this purpose?

Stated briefly, they are:

Providing Food.
- Purchase of raw materials (material).
- Preparation for cooking (labor):
  - Cutting, weighing, measuring, counting.
- Cooking (material and labor):
  - Application of heat; time of cook.
- Service (labor):
  - Preparation of dishes for table.
  - Preparation of table.
  - Serving.
- Removal, washing, and replacing of dishes.

Providing Shelter (including care and laundering of clothing).
- Making beds (labor).
- Laundering household linen and clothing (material and labor).
- Repairing clothing (material and labor).
- Cleaning house (material and labor).
- Heating and lighting (material and labor).

PURCHASING

Purchasing is considered so important by industrial managers as to be almost a department in itself. To the household manager some of the best opportunities for economy

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are offered in the purchasing of supplies. Purchase in wholesale quantities and provide plenty of room for storage. Deal directly with wholesalers when possible. Have purchases charged in all cases where cash discounts are not allowed, and pay all bills by check. Take advantage of the terms allowed; *i. e.*, do not pay a thirty-day account until the thirty days are elapsed. On the other hand, be careful to send checks promptly when due. It is just as important to build up a good credit for the household as for the industrial concern. As long as it is possible to deal directly with the wholesaler or commission merchant on the same terms as does the retailer, it is possible to save from twenty to fifty per cent of the initial cost of staple supplies. Care must be exercised in checking the orders as they are delivered, and for this purpose there must be provided accurate instruments for weighing and measuring. After inspection the purchases go to the storeroom, where they become "stock on hand."

PREPARATION FOR COOKING

All material to be used is drawn from stock. For this purpose definite standards are desirable. To illustrate what is meant by standards of food, observe the practice of a large New York restaurant in which scientific management has supplanted rule-of-thumb methods. There every item on the menu card is standardized. Although the patrons do not know it, there is a standard of weight or measure for any dish they may order. When a side or quarter of beef is received from the packers and its weight verified, it is first divided into several cuts, such as extra tenderloin, tenderloin, choice ribs, etc. Then the tenderloin, for instance, is cut into steaks of just so many ounces each—the standard determined upon—and sent to the cold storeroom as so many standard steaks, *not* as so many pounds of tenderloin. Thereafter it is known by number only. When an order is received for a tenderloin, a standard steak is sent to the kitchen. It is known to a minute how long it will take to prepare the order for serving. So it is with every item of fare.

Of course such methods cannot be applied directly to the household because of the labor element involved, which is the most difficult problem to be met. But much of all this is directly applicable, such as the standardization of meals and the determination of what constitutes a proper quantity for each person of each dish served.

Before taking up this subject of standardization there are more operations incident to providing food that should be considered. The preparation of food for cooking, it is evident, requires only labor. It includes the division of the raw materials into standard units, the preparation of these units for cooking (such as the peeling of potatoes, the trimming and chopping of meats, and the mixing of doughs), and the placing of them in proper cooking utensils ready for the application of heat. Just as in the factory every effort is made to provide the workmen with the most effective tools, so in this and all household work an effort should be made to obtain for the workers all mechanical devices that serve to decrease manual labor or save time.

COOKING

Cooking requires primarily the application of heat, but it also requires labor. In most houses a coal stove serves not only for cooking, but also for heating the kitchen and providing hot water. If a coal stove is to be used, a series of tests should be made to determine under what conditions the most heat can be obtained from the least coal. It should also be determined what periods of the day require but a small amount of heat, and the supply of fuel regulated accordingly. A record of the number of scuttles of coal consumed each day should be kept, by means of which it is possible to detect and stop unwarranted increases. By weighing fifteen or twenty scuttles of coal an average weight can be determined, which, divided into the total weight of coal purchased, will furnish a check upon the consumption records.

A record should be made of the time required to cook each kind of dish likely to be served. If the preparation of the food has been attended to properly, it should be possible to cook *all* the dishes for a given meal within the time required for the slowest-cooking dish—provided the stove will accommodate them all. By a little planning it is possible to reduce the time required to do the actual cooking to a very few minutes for each meal.

SERVICE

In the preparation of dishes for the table the worker can follow definite rules laid down by the manager. On cards properly headed and indexed should be written definite instructions—for the individual service of this vegetable, for the manner of serving that meat, for the standard weight or measure of single portions: Instead of guessing at the

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quantity of green peas, for instance, to be served to each person, the instructions would direct the use of a certain ladle for measuring individual portions. In planning for this method of management the housekeeper has determined upon what shall constitute a standard portion. But she should not stop there; she should provide a measure of just that capacity, mark it plainly with a serial number, and direct how it shall be used. The importance of writing on cards the instructions usually given orally, and then properly indexing the information, cannot be over-emphasized. The place for information regarding your affairs is in permanent records; a change of employees does not then entail a long, tedious instruction of new workers.

The preparation of the table is a process that can be timed to a nicety. A record should be made of what constitutes a properly set table for each meal—for breakfast, for luncheon, and for dinner. The manager should determine, by means of a few tests, just how many minutes are necessary for preparing each table. Such time should be recorded as standard for that work.

The time required for service differs, of course, with each meal, depending largely upon the wishes of the diners. Nothing further than thorough instruction in what constitutes good service is needed here.

In the removal, washing, and replacing of dishes there is room for much improvement. This duty is usually disliked, but an analysis shows that under proper management it should prove anything but that. First, there is the use of the service truck. This is a small table of two or three shelves, mounted on rather large wheels, used to transport dishes between the table and the serving pantry. There are several dish-washing machines, but for the average household they are not required. However, every household can use, and should adopt, drying-racks. These may be easily made. If made of metal and glass, with shelves of round wooden rods, two ordinary electric lamps placed near the bottom will give sufficient heat to dry dishes quite rapidly. The drying-rack should be placed near the washer, so that as the dishes are washed they may be placed within. The washing and drying process may be accurately timed, and a fair standard determined.

STANDARDIZATION

The subject of standardization may well be considered at greater length. It is important to know where standards may be established and upon what grounds they are based. There are standards of material and standards of time, and they are so different in nature that it is best to treat each separately.

Standards of Material. Standards of material are arrived at by tests. There should be established ten or twelve different dinners, for different occasions and for different seasons. Each dinner should be carefully planned, care being taken to provide proper food values, variety, and sufficient courses. Each dinner should be written out in detail on an index card, and given a number. Suppose, for the sake of definiteness, that Dinner No. 7 is made up of creamed tomato soup, tenderloin steak, baked sweet potatoes, green peas, olives and celery, tapioca pudding, and coffee. The next step is to determine what quantity of each constitutes a fair average quantity for one person. All soups take the same standard, which can be easily determined by any housekeeper. It is not possible for the writer to give here actual weights and measures, which would lead into a very dry discussion even of soups. Nor is it possible to apply one set of standards to all cases, for the scale of living, the class of employment, and many other conditions, enter into the calculations.

Having established what is a proper quantity of soup for each portion, provide a ladle or measure that will hold exactly that amount and mark it with a number. Thereafter the ladle will be used in measuring the quantity served to each person. Determine by a number of tests what quantities of each ingredient of creamed tomato soup are required for each portion served, and record this as the *kitchen* standard for tomato soup. First there is the determination of what quantity of finished soup comprises a standard portion; then the further determination of what quantity of raw materials should go into the making of a standard portion of the finished product.

The determination of standards should be carried just as far as possible. It is hard work, and takes much time and patient effort, but the resulting economy of material and the freedom from subsequent detailed planning make the necessary initial effort well worth while.

Just as standard dinners are planned, so should there be planned a number of standard breakfasts and luncheons. Just as a standard portion of soup is determined, so

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should there be determined standard portions of steaks, the various potatoes, the other vegetables, desserts, and even bread and butter. The laundry should consume very nearly the same amount of its supplies weekly; the kitchen stove and the furnace should be watched just as closely. After determining under what conditions these can be conducted most economically, and after carefully instructing the workers in charge, it should be required that thereafter the standard instructions be followed absolutely.

Standards of Time. This leads directly to a consideration of standards of time, which subject has to do almost entirely with labor. In the application of scientific management to industrial operations we are here confronted with the necessity of establishing time studies, a planning department, functional foremanship, improvements in shop methods, and an improved wage system.

TIME STUDIES

There is first the time study. In determining what is the least time an efficient worker should take to do a given piece of work we first make a careful study of one or more persons engaged in doing that work. With the aid of a watch we record the number of seconds required for each step. There are always to be found lost time and needless motions, and it is the object of the study to discover these so that they may be eliminated. Following is a typical time study covering the task of mixing and baking ordinary soda biscuit:

TIME STUDY

Materials—Flour, salt, soda or baking powder, milk, water.
Tools—Mixing pan, mixing board, measures, large spoon, large knife, cutter, baking tins.
Operations—Assembling materials, mixing dry ingredients, mixing and kneading dough, beating, cutting, placing in tins, placing tins in oven.

Item.	Details of Operations.	Actual Time. Seconds.
1	Goes to cupboard, gets mixing pan, cup, knife..	65
2	Goes to storeroom, brings in sack of flour.....	32
3	Stands gazing out of window.....	102
4	Gets cook-book and finds recipe.....	16
5	Measures flour and puts it into mixing pan....	34
6	Adds salt and baking powder or soda.....	10
7	Stirs and mixes dry ingredients.....	62
8	Time lost in getting milk from refrigerator	116
9	Goes to stove and regulates dampers.....	40
10	Stirs milk into the flour and makes dough.....	220
11	Adds more flour and kneads.....	30
12	Goes to sink, washes hands, goes to pantry for towel.....	38
13	Brings in mixing board and covers with flour..	32
14	Spreads dough on board, beats and kneads	45
15	Gets biscuit tins, butters them, places on table.	90
16	Cuts dough into biscuits and places in tins	78
17	Places tins in oven	10
	Total mixing time.....(17 minutes).....	1,020
18	Baking time .....(24 minutes)	

By a better arrangement of facilities and a little planning, time could be saved in items 2, 3, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15.

Such a study enables the experienced housekeeper to determine how much of the time consumed was really necessary and how much was lost time due to causes that can be remedied. From two or three such studies it is possible to establish what amounts to a standard time for mixing and baking biscuits, or for simply mixing them.

Time studies should be made first of all operations or tasks that must be performed by extra or outside help. Notable among these, in many households, are the operations of the laundry and the work of cleaning the house and windows. Suppose it has been determined, after time studies and tests, that one hundred pounds of wash should be completed in an eight-hour day, whereas under present conditions only fifty pounds are done, and the worker receives $2 per day. If under different management one hundred pounds can be done in eight hours by the same grade of labor, then it can be done for $2 instead of $4. But although it *can*, it *will* not be done unless sufficient inducement is offered the worker. That means, first, that full and definite instructions be given as to how each step of the work is to be done; that every mechanical device that is practicable be provided; and, finally, that special inducements in the matter of wages be offered. A wage system that has been found to work well in industrial situations of this kind is applicable here; the full rate ($2 for eight hours) is paid if the work is done at 66⅔ per cent efficiency (in this case if sixty-seven pounds is completed), and 1 per cent increase in rate is allowed for each 1 per cent increase in efficiency. If the worker accomplished the full one hundred pounds (efficiency 33⅓ per cent greater), the wage would be 33⅓ per cent greater, or $2.67. Whereas the worker is being paid a greater wage, the employer, by supplying suitable machinery and definite efficient instructions, is receiving 100 per cent increase in output for 33⅓ per cent in labor cost.

SELECTION OF WORKERS

After time studies have determined standards for each kind of work, the next step is to select the right kind of workers. Not half the employees of factories to-day are suited to the demands of the work *they* are doing, and not half the domestic workers are suited to the kind of work they are doing. You must determine what qualities are needed, and pick out applicants possessing such qual-

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ities. In order to get them you must pay them as much or more than they can earn elsewhere; but in so doing you are, as demonstrated above, receiving in return an increase in production greater than the increase in wage.

Having determined what are the fewest and quickest motions necessary to each operation, and having determined how much time is necessary (standard of time), you have selected the workers physically able to do the work. The next step is the careful training of these picked workers. In the modern factory this work is done by a corps of instructors, each handling a particular division of the work. In the household the worker should be shown what is the quickest and most effective way of doing each task required of him. The instructions should be most minute, and should be in writing. The work should be inspected from time to time to see that instructions are being followed.

CO-OPERATION AND REWARD

Perhaps the most radical feature of scientific management as applied to the household is the change required in the attitude of the employer toward the employee. The condescending "domestic servant" attitude must give way to one of equality with other workers. The class of girls who once went into domestic service is now attracted to the factory simply because of the vast difference in society's attitude toward the two occupations and the difference in the hours. The wage paid the average domestic employee is even now greater than that paid the average girl factory worker. The problem to be met in attracting reliable employees to domestic service is that of overcoming the stigma placed on domestic service as such; and of establishing standard hours of service.

There must be friendly co-operation between the employer and the workers. The work must be so laid out that each worker is given a series of definite tasks to perform, within definite hours, and that outside of such definite hours the worker's time is his own. If, upon occasion, extra tasks are required that necessitate hours of duty beyond the prescribed standard hours, extra wages should be paid for the extra time.

It having been established that, if a task is completed within the determined standard of time, it will effect a considerable saving in cost, it is logical that the worker instructed to perform the task should be rewarded for its timely performance by a share in the saving. The question of what is a fair share is one that has provoked much discussion by efficiency engineers and economists. The management is called upon to perform a large proportion of the planning and supervision that were formerly left to the judgment of the individual workers, and, in performing its new work on a large scale, is required to go to additional expense. After allowing for such expense, it would seem fair to both employer and employee that the wage rate be so computed that the net saving is divided equally between the two.

The present article can do little more than point out the methods by which scientific management can be applied to the conduct of household affairs, and suggest some of its possibilities. The subject is one of such magnitude that all its possibilities can be realized only after years of practical application of the science to typical households in all parts of the country and under a variety of conditions.

In applying its principles to individual cases it should be borne in mind that the preliminary work requires great patience and care, and not too much must be expected at first. Time studies, while intensely interesting, are nevertheless exacting, and must be undertaken slowly. By laying out a plan of application and extending the studies gradually until task after task has been analyzed and standardized, the best results may be accomplished.

The effect of a widespread application of this science of household management should be seen, first, in the matter of the purchase of supplies; then in the change that will be brought about in society's attitude toward the domestic employee; and, lastly, in the steadily increasing efficiency of household labor due to the spirit of co-operation between a better class of workers and a scientifically instructed management.

It is earnestly hoped that a large number of households throughout the country will consider the possibilities of this science important enough to warrant serious and continued experiment in its practical application to their needs. The Outlook will be glad to receive inquiries from interested persons on any problems brought out in the course of such experiments, and will appreciate reports of results.

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THE MAHOGANY SET

BY EDWIN BALMER

TO-NIGHT, upon a few hundred trains, a few thousand traveling men—or a few tens of thousands—are setting forth with their samples. Most of them are young men, and more of them are likable. For, other things being equal, likableness sells things. A good many times, when other things are unequal, likableness more than makes up the difference.

So what these young men say, and the power of their personal popularities, pretty well fixes what's to be eaten and what's to be worn—and how long it can be worn—and what's to be used in whole populations. Yet, in spite of their reputation for "gall," most of them are modest young men. They think that the most they do is to get orders to mail back to the office, upon which will be paid commissions which rent the flat, cheer the grocer, and exhilarate the dressmaker in the city. If this leads to complications—

Barton, traveling out of Chicago for Carrel & Heath, woolens, was engaged.

There was no formal announcement of it in the office. But the anonymous girl's voice which used timidly to inquire over the telephone whether it was Cedar Rapids or Cedar Falls that Mr. Barton went to from Muscatine, and which said, "Oh!" with such audible relief when told it was the Rapids, was now known to belong to Miss Sidney Crain. When Barton was in town, he called her number boldly on the office phone; and when he was away, she no longer required confirmation of addresses from the office.

On the contrary, upon the occasion when the sales route map of the trans-Mississippi was knocked over and the purple-headed pins which denoted Barton's points in Iowa were displaced, Heath—the sales manager—called up Miss Crain to make sure it was Oelwein to which he should wire to catch Barton.

"Carrel," Heath said to his partner, as he turned from the phone, "Barton's going to strike us for a raise."

"What makes you think so?" Carrel, who was bald and suffered from rheumatism, asked practically.

"I scared her half to death when I told her I was Mr. Heath." The younger partner smiled, but immediately was again serious. "She's been giving him her nerve against me. Besides, Grannis is after him. He's getting out a line to fight us hard, and he wants men like Barton to sell it."

Carrel grunted. "He needs 'em, you mean. I've seen the line. Barton's not a complete ass."

"I ran across him and her," Heath gestured toward the telephone, "at Field's the other day looking at a mahogany set. It wasn't the sort that goes with forty a week. That's his average with us."

"He can't get any more from us—this year."

"I know it. But I hate to see him go to Grannis. He has his territory nailed to him, and can swing half of it on his say-so even to Grannis's line. They like him."

Almost every one liked Barton. He was twenty-six, big, direct-eyed, well-looking, and with hair that tinged toward red. He could talk college with those who had been to one or had sons preparing, and could refrain from referring to his university to the others. Taking naturally to enthusiasms, and carrying a "line" which justified them, his paths led to pleasant places. Merchants in his towns took him home with them to dinner when his train left late. He had a good time. After he left a house no one ever watched him away from the door with the resentment of hospitality commercialized.

However, commissions on his line in his territory were limited. Policy in regard to higher commissions or permission to carry "side" lines could not be altered toward the purple pins stuck into Iowa towns without being changed toward the rest of the rainbow of colors which dotted the towns of the forty-eight States across Heath's route maps.

To his problem of the mahogany set Grannis's offer—in his pocket as he came in from Oelwein—was therefore the sole solution.

Just as he came into the station at Chicago he took it out again to re-read it. It was inevasively written out and signed by Grannis, guaranteeing sixty dollars a week above all expenses. He had in his pocket with it the telegram which he had written to

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Sidney upon receipt of the offer in writing, "Put aside the mahogany set." He had not sent it. As it was useless now, he tore it up. In the same impulse his fingers touched the envelope in which he had replaced the offer; but they did not tear it.

Yet, while stepping off the train and on the way to the telephone booth from which he would call Sidney, he rehearsed his announcement of the offer to her thus:

"Sid, I've got the offer from Grannis, guaranteeing sixty. I can't take it. But it's something to get their estimate of you, what?"

A soft, happy laugh surprised a tingle all through him.

"Bobbie! Oh, Bobbie! Didn't you *see* me?"

A black-haired little girl, flushed pinkly beautiful and with blue, shining eyes, showing she had inside altogether too much happiness for her size, blocked his path.

"Sidney! You look as if you'd heard!"

"Heard what—besides that you were coming back?"

"I've got an offer of sixty a week from Grannis!"

"Bobbie! Sixty! It's more than even *you* said was enough to get married on!"

Bobbie nodded.

"Sixty! Bobs, when do you begin to get it?"

"Grannis wants me as soon as possible. Of course I've got to give Heath a decent notice, if he wants it; and also the chance to meet the sixty."

"But, anyway, you're sure of the sixty?"

"Do you want to see it in writing?"

With an irrevocable engagement at one o'clock at Field's lunch-room, and with an if-possible promise to be in the furniture department an hour earlier, Bobbie went up to the office.

Carrel greeted him characteristically.

"What's been the matter with orders, Barton?"

"They aren't buying much. That's all."

"From any one?"

"I lost one account that I sold before." Barton looked to Heath for confirmation. "That was on conditions the office wired me not to meet. The rest aren't buying anything more just now than they can help; that's all there is to it."

Heath nodded. "They're putting off the real buying this year as long as they can. That's why I called you in. I think they'll get the nerve to order right in a couple of weeks. They've left-over stocks to start their season on. You can trust most of your people to wait for you, can't you?"

Barton cleared his throat.

"Yes," he said boldly, "I can."

Both partners waited. Barton addressed Heath.

"It's a bad time to bring it up now, I know; but, as you say, business is bound to be normal soon. I'm not asking for anything more till I go back on the road; but I'd like to know whether it is possible for me to expect my commissions to be arranged so I can average sixty a week—or get more territory so I can make it on the present basis."

"Why?" Carrel inquired, coldly.

"I want to get married."

"Hmm! Who do you want us to take the territory from to give to you? McMillan or Seaman?"

Heath looked out the window.

"Neither," Barton replied to the senior partner.

"Then you mean you want a different commission?"

"Yes."

"You want us to raise everybody all around or give you a secret commission different from the rest?"

Barton made no reply. Heath was signaling Carrel; but the older man defied him. "No. I've got it straight this morning that Grannis mailed him an offer. He's got it in his pocket now to force us. If he'd rather carry Grannis's line at sixty starting now instead of ours at sixty when he's earned it, the sooner he skips to Grannis the better."

Barton's teeth met.

"Mr. Grannis's proposition to me is to handle their new line."

Carrel snapped his fingers. "Their new line! It's rottener than their old. The old one looked what it was; this doesn't."

"You act as though I'd be a crook to sell any other line than yours!"

"You are—if you sell Grannis's as the same as ours!"

Heath got his partner out of the office.

Barton, left alone, waited, poppy-faced, for the sales manager to return. While waiting he sat down and wrote out his resignation. He rose, leaving it upon the desk, as Heath returned.

The sales manager took up the paper without seeming to look at it. A boy followed

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him into the office with an armful of samples, which Heath spread over the desk.

"There's Grannis's new line. I believe you haven't seen it."

Barton turned away.

"Look at it," Heath urged evenly. "I'm not going to talk morals to you; I talk plain business. Do you think you can sell that line as the equal of ours at the same price?"

"Mr. Grannis seems about fifty per cent more sure of it than you are I can sell your line!"

"Grannis doesn't know you."

"What do you mean by that?"

"That Grannis must think you're a good liar. I know you're no good that way. There are other lines like ours; but they can't pay more than our commission. Grannis can pay differently because his stuff's different."

Barton looked about hesitantly. He saw the stenographers in the outer office putting on their hats to go out to lunch. It swiftly recalled his engagement to him. He had missed the one in the furniture department; the mahogany set was now reserved for him.

"Mr. Grannis doesn't treat me as if he thought I was a liar," he said, stiffly. "He says his new line is better than yours; he backs me better in selling it."

Heath slowly folded the resignation which he had picked up. "All right," he said, quietly. "If he wants you now, you can start drawing sixty a week to-night—from him. It won't inconvenience us. I wasn't going to send you back on the road for two weeks. I won't need another man till then."

Bobbie stepped from the elevator into Field's lunch-room.

"Oh, Bobs! it's the dearest set! But you are *sure* we can afford it?"

Bobbie grasped her arm and squeezed it.

"Why not, Little One?"

"You've got your sixty—sure?"

"Certain. I've just seen Grannis and accepted."

"Oh, Bobs!"

They ordered luncheon fitting for the occasion. Sidney watched the Big One with concern as he tossed away the menu.

"Tired, Bobs?"

Bobs eyes glinted. "Carrel tried to make me feel like a crook—and Heath, too—because I'm going to show 'em up. I'm going out Monday for Grannis. I'll see Cedwick at Hepton first. He's a good buyer, and does as I say. I'll show 'em!"

"New cases, sah!" black Billy commented, as he carried them from the Hepton station to Cedwick's store.

Barton nodded confidently to people who recognized him. He saw his friend Cedwick—portly, spectacled, smiling, with his clothes and linen scrupulously clean, as always, but his tie awry, as usual, and his coat and trousers comfortably wrinkled. Cedwick was something over forty, and he had been to Dubuque half a dozen times, and to Chicago once—at the time of the World's Fair, when he made the visit his wedding trip. He hailed Barton from the front of his store.

"Hello, Chicago man! Come on right in. Been looking for you for a week. Young lady you write all those letters to kept you back?"

Barton shook hands, smiling. "How's everybody? Harry got his aeroplane model flying yet, and Mrs. Cedwick got her fireless cooker trained?"

"Nope," Cedwick winked. "I guess it was more than stronger rubber bands that biplane needed; but the cooker's saving its cost in coal right along every month—*Mrs.* Cedwick says. But what you got here? Hello! Ain't you swapped cases with some one?"

"Swapped lines," Barton said, easily. "Grannis got out something just enough better to get me—hard. I'm showing it first to you."

"The Grannis people?" Cedwick looked at him in surprise.

"Got a new line, and wanted me to show it. That's what made me late. D'you want to see it now?"

Cedwick cleared space upon his counters. As the pieces were handed to him he asked the price of each and put them down. Taking each sample up again, one after the other, he stretched them solemnly, rubbed them between his fingers, and carried each piece to the window. He was a silent buyer. After getting the prices he asked no questions; he wished nothing said to him while he was examining samples. Then he asked his questions all together.

Accordingly Barton watched him, without comment, as Cedwick took down from his shelves the pieces which Barton had sold

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him before and compared them with the new.

"Well," Cedwick broke his silence at last. "Been enjoying yourself as usual watching me put up my bluff? Impresses my customers, you know, if they look in while I'm buying. But you know you're the doctor. What you say goes. You've certainly delivered the goods before. If this line's better, fill out my order."

"For how much?"

Cedwick gave him the quantities. Barton filled the order blank out swiftly, once in a while suggesting corrections. Finally he passed it over. As Cedwick checked the figures, Barton occupied himself with stamping an envelope addressed to Grannis. He saw that Cedwick, after approving the amounts, was holding the order before signing it. Cedwick was looking over it at him. Barton busied himself examining the correspondence which he had taken from his pocket with the envelope which he stamped.

Cedwick cleared his throat, took off his spectacles and blinked with his big, good-natured, near-sighted blue eyes. Then suddenly he signed the order and handed it back. Barton folded it and sealed it immediately into his stamped envelope.

"Thanks," he said, as he took out his watch. "If I catch the Interurban at two, couldn't I make the connection at Clarksville and get into Cedar Falls to-night?"

"Nope. Interurban's all been torn up since you been here. Trains don't run into Clarksville either. You wouldn't do anything but sleep at Cedar Falls to-night. The eight o'clock train gets you there plenty long before your bedtime. That's the only train you're allowed to leave this town on; and the sheriff'll run you in if you're found trying to get food anywhere but at H. Cedwick's."

"Sometimes it's mighty confusing to try to figure out what—besides aeroplaning, of course—I'd want Harry to do," Cedwick said at the supper-table as the preserves were being passed. Harry, the biplane model maker, was fifteen, the oldest of the three children at the table. "You see, Barton, a good many times when you're coming around and dropping in, and then going off somewhere else, and I'm sticking right here all the time, I think the moving-about job is the one to have. Then other times I wonder if I don't see more of life than all of you fly fellows, with expense accounts, jumping here and jumping there. Not a lot of people pass my doors from one year's end to the next; but most of 'em pass it a heap of times; and I don't know but what that's more interesting, after all. Ma, Miss Minnie was in again this afternoon after the goods for her new dress."

"Ma," a vigorous, still pretty woman of forty, whose attention during meals was mostly to the manners of the ambitious aviator and his sister and brother, immediately became interested.

"Miss Minnie? Did she get the goods this time?"

"Nope." Cedwick lifted his cup.

"Who's Miss Minnie?" Barton asked.

Cedwick bit off some jam-spread toast. "Tell him, Ma."

"Miss Minnie?" "Ma" was uncertain how to begin. "Why, she's just Miss Minnie. Jack Gerten brought her here when I was a girl. He wasn't much good, but he died a few years after, leaving her little Jack. She was a seamstress then, sewing about at people's houses, as they needed her. I remember my mother had her in to help sew on my dresses before I got married. Remember, Papa?"

Papa nodded, his mouth unemotionally full.

"There weren't many that needed a sewing-woman or could have one often in those years; but she got along. Always had a little; and the little was the very best. She brought up that boy of hers proudly if any mother ever did. All by herself; she didn't seem to have relations. But something was the matter with Jack. Seeing his mother slave for him didn't have any effect on him at all. When he got to be a big boy and could have helped her, he never raised a finger for her. I don't know what she said to him in private, but outside she never let on but that Jack was all he ought to be. Years his mother supported him; then he deserted her.

"He was a grown man then—twenty-five almost; I guess she was upwards of fifty. We all thought it a good riddance—that she'd have some chance for herself now. She was making good money dressmaking. But we didn't know her. All she thought about was saving the name of her boy. She heard the talk about him; so all of a sudden she stops taking in sewing and going out

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dressmaking. 'Jack,' she tells us, 'went off to get work in Chicago. He's a good job there now, and wants to take care of me. He insists that I stop work.' That was ten years ago, wasn't it, Papa?"

"Ten or eleven."

"Sunny day nor cloudy day since then has seen Jack home to see his mother, whom, she says, he supports, and the postmaster's never seen a letter in his writing. But she knows he's alive, and so he can come home when he wants to; she tells every one that he's taking care of her. We found out long ago that she's living by embroidering and knitting and all that awful low-paid work a woman can do alone with her needle. She does it all in secret in her house and sends it off somewhere in Chicago. One wouldn't believe she could keep body and soul together at that, clever as she is with the needle. But she does, and saves up enough to buy one good wool dress every third or fourth winter."

"When there's maybe a month of wear left in the old suit," Cedwick explained, "and no more brushing or remaking or turning can save it, in she comes to the store and looks over my goods.

"'Mr. Cedwick,' she says, 'my son Jack has just sent me money for a new dress. He thinks I need it. He's married, you know: but he's not the less thoughtful of his mother.' Ma should have told you," Cedwick parenthesized, "that she had to have him married four or five years ago to help her out with reasons why he couldn't come down to see her. First there were children being born, and now they're sick—always at Christmas.

"'Here's the goods.' I show them to her. 'The best.'

"'How much is it?' she says.

"'Two dollars the yard,' I say, for she'd never let me knock off anything to her.

"'Woolens are going up,' she says; then I know she hasn't got quite enough yet. 'However, I'll write Jack, and he'll send me the money. I'll need six yards, you see; but I'll have this, if you're sure it's the best. I'd hate to take that amount of money from my boy—and him with his big doctor bills for his babies—and have it all pull apart after a year.'

"'I'm giving you a word as good as mine this is the best to be had,' I say.

"Then she goes out; but every day she passes, for the month or two while she's making up maybe the dollar more she needed, she drops in and looks at the goods she's going to buy. Then, like this afternoon, she comes in all smiling but nervous; and her little hand is cold and wet from excitement when she shakes hands with you.

"It's longer this time than ever before that she's had to wait before she got the money; I could see how much harder it come. She had it all right, but the excitement was because sometimes she thought it would never come. I couldn't help wondering whether the next dress wouldn't have to be given her; I thought what that'd do to her. So I dasn't cut the price I said; but I wanted to be sure I'd give her every cent's worth—something that might last even a little longer than the last, though she wore it all the time.

"'My boy just sent me the money!' she says to me. 'I'll take that dress goods now, please. Six yards.'

"'I got something better coming down just next week, Miss Minnie,' I says. 'A brand-new line of goods, the best thing out. The man that sold me the goods you're wearing sold me this new goods. He says this'll outwear it. The same price.'

"'Oh, will it?' she says; and I saw the change in her eye that let me know how she'd been thinking if this next piece mightn't wear a little better. 'I'll come back then,' she says; and went off. Ma, pass Mr. Barton the jam; he's waiting for it."

Barton stood up. "I must catch my train," he muttered.

"Sit down," Cedwick bid. "You've a quarter of an hour. I'll drive you over."

"I'm going to walk, thanks," Barton said. He spoke his good-night to Cedwick's wife and the children. Cedwick followed him into the hall.

Barton looked him in the eye. "Thanks," he said. "Write out your cancellation of that order, and I'll wire it to Grannis for you. I'm wiring him to-night myself—and Heath."

Also he sent a third wire which read, "Cancel the mahogany set. Are you still willing—on forty?"

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GIDEON WELLES'S DIARY

BY ALBERT BUSHNELL HART

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THE period of the American Civil War has been ransacked by historical writers, who have produced hundreds of volumes—formal histories of the war, biographies of military and civilian leaders, annals of armies or regiments, accounts of campaigns and battles, discussions of government, finance, and diplomacy. There is also a bewildering mass of first-hand material, including military memoirs by Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Schofield, Joe Johnston, Longstreet, and a host of others. The works of many of the statesmen of that period have also been published in painstaking details, such as the correspondence and state papers of Sumner, Seward, and Abraham Lincoln. We have the intimate, though fragmentary, journals of Salmon P. Chase, recently published *in extenso;* we probably shall have the diary of Charles Francis Adams, if his son of that ilk does not hold to his present opinion that it is marvelously devoid of striking passages; we even have bits of the diary of John B. Floyd, who boasted that he had used his position as Secretary of War under Buchanan to prepare the Southern States to fight the National Government, and turned out to have been such a liar that he had falsely accused himself of that perfidy.

Few people suspected that there was still a piece of fundamental first-hand testimony upon the most intimate side of the Civil War till the "Atlantic" began to publish parts of the "Diary of Gideon Welles," which has now been published in full (Houghton Mifflin Company), with the enlivening effect of a big solid nugget in a placer which was supposed to be exhausted. Too much cannot be said for the execution of the work by the publishers. The Introduction by John T. Morse, Jr., is a masterpiece of succinct yet entertaining biography, and is an alluring bait for reviewers, who might so easily summarize the three volumes from Morse's summary. Unfortunately the Diary does not begin till the middle of 1862, though there is reprinted a narrative prepared by Welles after the war on the Fort Sumter episode and the outbreak of hostilities. Thence it proceeds to the end of his service in 1869.

The contents justify all this care in preparation. Welles's Diary will always be one of the raciest and most valuable of the first-hand records of the period of the Civil War. The man himself was throughout interesting. A politician and office-holder from his youth up; appointed by Van Buren to a postmastership, and by Polk to an administrative post in the Navy Department; one of the earliest of the Democrats to throw in his lot with the new Republican party; a journalist, a National committeeman, a politician who loved the game as much as those chieftains who in our day are content with a great reputation for preventing the people from getting the legislation that they want. Welles had his share of that general culture with which New Englanders were supposed to be infected, and the Diary shows an educated man's power of expression. The introducer assures us that the text has not been cooked, and the text is the work of a man who liked to express his mind in good, round, vigorous sentences. The Diary reads well—you may open the leaves anywhere and find an entertaining, often an absorbing, passage.

Beyond the style of a diary, its value depends on the author's opportunities for knowing what was really going on. Welles had a better point of view than most members of the Cabinet, because he was the official head of a branch of the military service—the Secretary of the Navy is a potentate before whom flags dip and guns boom. The book is naturally full of details upon the navy, which was Welles's meat and drink. It has also much to the point on military matters of every kind, including narratives of frequent exchange of views, more or less hostile, between the heads of the army and the navy. As a Cabinet officer he was aware of most that came before that board, and of many things that did not. As a friend and loyal supporter of Lincoln he was in a position to set down a multitude of incidents which give greater definition to that majestic leader.

It is not enough that a diarist should have opportunities to learn the truth; does he tell the truth which he has acquired? There is room here for many verities, inasmuch as the Diary is crammed with details. Upon every page is manifest the sincere intention to set things down just as they occurred. Nevertheless, every diarist (except perhaps Pepys) is subject to the pitfalls of self-consciousness.

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The internal evidence of the book is that Welles expected posterity to read his book and The Outlook to review it. He naturally likes to record his own sagacity, his quickness to penetrate pretense and self-seeking, his success in prophecy, his insight into men's characters. Furthermore, the diarist sets down the mood of the day, and does not hunt up back volumes to correct an estimate which has been shown to be wrong.

Macaulay loved to add up the totals of fainting-spells in English novels; and an interesting calculation might be made of the number of people whom Gideon Welles weighed and found wanting during his eight years of service. It would be still more interesting to compare the footings of his studies with those of the people who are impaled in the pages of John Quincy Adams's Diary, or mayhap the unpublished correspondence of Grover Cleveland. Some of these pet aversions of Welles were scoundrels, more were incapable and wrong-headed men in places of influence; some were as wise as Welles and as patriotic, and doubtless had their opinion of the obstinate Secretary of the Navy who was always exalting his Department.

On the other hand, the book abounds in sharp and seemingly accurate pen portraits of the men of the time. Of Stanton he says: "He was vigilant, often efficient, . . . with the resources of a nation in men and money at his command and each used without stint or scruple," yet he repeatedly bears testimony to Stanton's zeal and energy. Toward Chase Welles had a kindlier feeling, but he aptly characterizes him in a few words: "Mr. Chase has a good deal of ability, but has never made finance his study. His general ideas appear to be crudely sound, but he does not act upon them. . . . He has not made his plans the subject of Cabinet consultation." Seward throughout arouses the ire of Welles, partly because the navy had many relations with foreign Powers upon which the Secretary of State and the Secretary of the Navy did not agree. Welles describes from intimate knowledge the interference of Seward with the Fort Sumter expedition in April, 1861. To his mind, Seward throughout the chapter interferes with the other departments, and unfavorably influences the President, with whom, he says, Seward "has the inside track and means to keep it."

Of Montgomery Blair Welles thinks highly, and the book does much to enlarge the reputation of that somewhat neglected statesman. He says of him: "He has great political sagacity, tact, and ability, and watches with keen eyes the movements of men and parties," to which he adds characteristically, "I find his views in most respects correspond with my own as to demonstrations now being made." Of Attorney-General Bates he says, "The old gentleman is very honest and bright-minded; he likes to be thought a little—or a good deal obstinate, to be satisfied he is right." With Caleb Smith, Secretary of the Interior, he had few relations.

Through the window which Welles opens upon the daily workings of the Government we see confirmation of the tales of other members of the Cabinet about jealousies, rivalries, and lack of harmonious action. Lincoln, having the responsibility upon his shoulders, in many cases came to an understanding with this or that member of the Cabinet and orders were issued accordingly; when it reached the ears of the other members, some of them felt that things were not discussed to the bottom, though nobody was averse to that method in his own department.

Welles's Diary is an added proof that the stronger the light cast upon Lincoln's life and character, the clearer stand out his honesty of purpose, his harmonizing spirit, his wisdom, and his uplifting soul. Welles adds almost nothing to the collection of Lincoln's sayings, except his remark that McClellan was "troubled with the 'slows,'" and that when somebody asked Lincoln who Orpheus C. Kerr was and what things he had written, he replied, "Any one who has not read them must be a heathen." Lincoln added, doubtless with a twinkle, that he greatly enjoyed the squibs on Welles and Chase, but those on him "did not strike him as very successful."

The book brings into relief the terrible military difficulties inside the lines, the clashes and jealousies of good men whose overtaxed judgments disagreed, and the increasing strain upon the President to keep the machine in motion. Welles also brings out Lincoln's keen interest in politics, and the way in which he watched nominations and elections. He says, "He has great inquisitiveness. Likes to hear the political gossip as much as Seward." Without changing that estimate of Lincoln which has grown up in the hearts of the American people, the book heightens the colors and sharpens the reality.

On the whole, Welles, while a loyal and warm-hearted friend of Lincoln, did not

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penetrate deeply into his character; but he was in a position to understand the principal questions of policy which the Administration had to solve. Among the questions to which the Diary contributes new material are the Sumter episode, the calling of Halleck to Washington in 1862, and Chase's movement for recalling McClellan in 1862. Welles throws very interesting light upon the President's colonization plans for the Negroes, and records that the Chiriqui settlement went back to a speculative claim on Costa Rica which began in Buchanan's Administration. Lincoln felt sure that a treaty could be negotiated with England or Denmark for carrying the Negroes with their own consent to some other part of America, and Montgomery Blair, whose family had been the backers of Dred Scott in his suit for freedom, was eager for deportation, a remedy which is further off now than it was fifty years ago. Welles gives much inside information on the curious intrigue of December, 1862, by which the Republican Senators set out to tip Seward from the Cabinet, and nearly succeeded. The Senators clearly raised the issue that they thought the decisions of the President ought to be controlled by a majority vote of his Cabinet, which did not make the idea more palatable to Lincoln. Welles himself, who for years devoted weary evenings to setting down for our edification his unfavorable opinion of Seward, now had the good sense to advise the President strongly against yielding to this pressure. As everybody knows, Chase unwittingly cut the Gordian knot by offering his own resignation. The President instantly saw that he had the vantage, for it put the Senators in the position of breaking up the Cabinet. While pleased that Seward remained, Welles cannot forbear adding that he is "meddlesome, fussy, has no fixed principles or policy."

On the complicated and almost forgotten controversy over Seward's pledge that the mails captured in the British steamer Peterhoff should not be opened, Welles sets forth his case at great length. The point was that the mails contained evidence which was expected to justify the capture; but in the end the President took Seward's side of the controversy. A curious comment on the confusion in the military service is that no arrangement was made to send direct news to the War Department from the field of Gettysburg till the battle was over. Another curious fact is that on the day after the battle Vice-President Stephens of the Confederacy applied for a pass to come to Washington to confer with the President. The bitter disappointment of Lincoln that Meade did not follow Lee and did not take the offensive later in the season is very clearly brought out, as is the throwing over of Montgomery Blair in 1864, as a tub to the whale in the Fremont movement. Blair told Welles that he was satisfied that it was the work of Seward and Weed, but Lincoln told him that Chase's friends insisted that, since their man was out, Blair must step out also.

With due discount for the endless charges of incompetence and bad faith against a large number of people who figure in the book, the half of the Diary which covers Lincoln's Administration is a very valuable source on the Civil War. Even more important for the historical investigator is the second half of the book, which covers Welles's four years of service under President Andrew Johnson. Welles did not pay close attention to the plans of reconstruction made while Lincoln was alive, though in a conversation with Chase in August, 1863, that statesman declared that the seceding States "had forfeited their rights, . . . they were to be subjugated, conquered." Welles saw clearly the serious admission in this theory, namely, that secession was possible, and could constitutionally dissolve the relation of States to the Union. His conclusion is substantially that to which Congress came in the end: "The rights of the States are unimpaired; the rights of those who have participated in the Rebellion may have been forfeited;" and he foresaw the need of Constitutional amendment to cover this anomalous condition.

When the war was over, though the excellent administrative powers of Welles were less needed, he continued in office, went through the cyclone of the impeachment period, and, along with Seward, remained the friend and supporter of Johnson, whose character is undoubtedly set in more favorable light by this book. A volume might be written, based on the intimate evidence from within, on the Presidential plan of reconstruction and the quarrels between Johnson and Congress.

As early as August, 1865, Welles records his belief that a Republican organization was forming against President Johnson, in which Stanton would take a part; the growth of this opposition is traced at great length. The first veto was of the Freedman's Bureau

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Bill, February, 1866, which Welles politely calls "a terrific engine"—"a governmental enormity." From this point on the Diary is a first-class source for the whole story of the breach with Congress, the quarrel with Stanton, the appointment of Grant as Secretary of War, and the impeachment, which Welles gloomily expected to see carried out, though Johnson always stood to his guns and predicted that it would fail.

Though Gideon Welles belongs not in the front rank of Civil War statesmen, and was inferior in power, in imagination, in influence over others, to many of the people whom he criticises, he did his country a great service by the care he took to set down while they were fresh the events and impressions of the day. His conceptions of character are shrewd and well put, however one-sided; his knowledge of events is immense; his record of a public service, honestly striving from day to day and from week to week to make his Department do the work for which it was created, is an inspiration to Americans. With some manifest defects, Welles's Diary is, next after Nicolay and Hay's "Lincoln" and Grant's "Memoirs," the most characteristic, intimate, and revealing book written by an actual participant in the Civil War and Reconstruction.

THE BARD OF BOUILLABAISSE

WRITTEN FOR THE CENTENARY OF THACKERAY

BY PERCY MACKAYE

Old guests are gone; old friends have faltered—
Passed to forgetfulness or fame;
Time's little inn remains unaltered,
The bill of fare is still the same;
And still within his cherished corner
He keeps his "old, accustomed place"—
Our brother, cynic, lover, scorner,
Beloved bard of *Bouillabaisse.*

The grizzled face has grown no older;
A hundred years, they bring no scars;
Pensive, he turns his shadowy shoulder
To snuff the candles—of the stars;
Where generations, eager-hearted,
Throng newly round his storied chair,
And Monsieur Terré, long departed,
Leaves in his stead—Madame la Terre.

Madame la Terre plays now the hostess
And decks his place for holiday,
Where his imperishable ghost is
The guest to whom she brings her tray;
That he may, gracious, smile upon her,
She curtsies to the shadowed face:
What may she serve to do him honor?
Behold—a bowl of *Bouillabaisse!*

"A hotchpotch of all sorts of fishes"—
Such is his ballad recipe.
"This *Bouillabaisse* a noble dish is"—
Hotchpotch of *all* sorts—such as we!
Souls with the garlic and the pepper,
A sort of savory broth or paste
Of lover, liar, hero, leper;
He taught us—for *ourselves* the taste!

For lo, now, to his festa, who comes!
Where Beatrix shines down the stair
Through crowded Crawleys, Esmonds, Newcomes,
While Becky, purring in her lair,
Sits tangling the besotted Sedley,
To bumptious Gumbo's black grimace—
A mordant, brilliant, bubbling medley,
To mix his bowl of *Bouillabaisse!*

His recipe remains the human:
Hotchpotch of passions, pruderies,
Lusts, raptures, loves of man and woman,
Old vanity of vanities
Redeemed in visions of the poet
Who learns from anguish all his arts:
His bowl, Madame la Terre, bestow it!
The bowl is brimming—with our hearts.

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THE SPECTATOR

THE Spectator has made many an effort to analyze his passion to be the foremost discoverer of the arbutus in the spring. He knows, of course, that he enjoys very much going down to his place of business with a spray of it in his buttonhole, and having one man after another come up to him and say: "What! arbutus out so soon? I thought it was a great deal too early for it. Where did you find it?" And then the Spectator has the never-ending pleasure of telling of his long, long walk the day before up the mountain-side to that little valley where the flower first dares to open its petals in spring. Sometimes he thinks that it is the desire for this long walk which actually induces him to start on his expedition. He longs, as the March days grow longer and the numbers on the big advertising calendar in his office become bigger, to have some plausible excuse to offer to the women folk at home for a ramble through the woods. He wants to see if those three old oaks close together near the summit of the mountain have withstood the winds of winter, and whether he can still read all those initials which were carved on certain beech trees some years ago. That particular rare clump of spruce trees and the group of pines close by are calling for his attention, he is sure. He yearns for the quiet little glen with its high ledge of rocks covered with lichens, through which the brook goes purling quietly and soothingly, even after a heavy storm. And, most of all, he wishes for that grand, satisfying view from the top of the mountain off over hills and valleys to the long ridge of mountains many miles away. He feels that he needs this vista now and then to keep his mind and heart and soul big and hopeful, to instill into him once more that

"God's in his heaven;
All's right with the world."

He loves the actual searching for the flower, to be sure. He will never tire of brushing aside the dead brown leaves from the sides of the rotten trunk of some tree where he so often finds the arbutus. The straightening out of the long stems of the flower until he has found the pink or white blossom at its end; the careful cutting of it with the shears in order to save the roots of the flower; the inhaling of its fragrance in delicious breaths—these surely are pleasures which a king might envy. The Spectator, when in a complacent mood, as he sits in his study enjoying his novel or history or sociology, often tells himself what a mark of catholic taste it really is to be able to enjoy such simple pastimes.

Of late years the Spectator has been very careful about asking any one to go with him on his first expedition of the season. One day in March, about ten years ago, he called up a friend on the phone and asked him to go out with him for arbutus. The early spring had been so mild and moist that he assured his friend that they would probably find the ground white with it. His friend accompanied him on a long, hard climb, during which the mountain, its rocks, and its trees received some very unkind remarks. When they arrived at their destination, they found the ground white, it is true, but white from the wild flurries of snow which whirled and beat upon them until even the Spectator, who loves to be out in such a storm, acknowledged that perhaps they had best take the shortest way to their home. During the summer and winter that followed this little episode the Spectator would cross the street to avoid meeting his friend, and if he thought he was to be at the same gathering with himself he always found it sufficient excuse for his own absence. For the two could never come together without the Spectator's being asked if he did not think it about time to start looking for arbutus. Naturally he objected to being invited on the 17th of December to go out the next Saturday to search for May flowers!

During the spring of last year it was the 26th of March before the Spectator even made what he calls his reconnoitering trip. The many cold days which had preceded forbade his telling even such trusting people as his sisters that he was going to search for arbutus, and he merely said that he was going on a long tramp to digest a particularly heavy Sunday dinner. He wandered over the entire eastern slope of the mountain and sought out the warmest of glens, but all that he was able to bring back were some little sprays of trailing pine and a handful of pussy-willows, which he cut as a kind of peace-offering to excuse his lateness at the evening meal.

It was late in April when he dared to tell his family that he was going to bring them all the flowers that they could possibly wish. The day was one of those June days that somehow wander now and then far ahead of their companions to tell us of what is to come, and the Spectator's heart was full of joy as he began the steep ascent up the mountain-side. He found everything just as he had found it for so many years past. The little brook whose source was in a spring a little higher up was singing as quietly as ever as he lay down at full length, in the old boy-fashion, to sip up a full, cold draught of water. The catkins on the poplars were out in their stylish fuzzy coats, and the maple buds were very daring in their robes of red and saffron. It was so perfect a day that the Spectator

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had a faint hope that he might again possibly have the same pleasure as had come to him once before. He had been leaning down to gather a beautiful cluster of arbutus, when from a point near by came the clear, sweet notes of a soprano voice caroling the air of Green's "Sing Me to Sleep." The voice came nearer while the Spectator held his breath with joy, and then died slowly away as the singer and her companion continued their way. The Spectator had then and there made a generalization that the keenest of his pleasures often arrived most unexpectedly and from the most simple of sources.

But this pleasure did not greet him on that day, and the Spectator had to satisfy himself with his old, old sources which were forever new. On the top of the ridge he must needs rest his eyes for a long time on the peaceful landscape where the gray and green woodlands, the rich brown of newly plowed fields and the fields where was still the light-brown stubble of the year before, the green of sprouting grass and grain, composed a mosaic more beautiful than was ever wrought out by an Italian artist. He watched the seemingly slow movement of a long train of cars down in the valley on their way toward New York City; he sought out with his field-glass familiar lakes and well-known little country villages through which he had often tramped. And he breathed in again the inspirations which he always derived from this bigness, this peace and quiet, which lie on the mountain-top. Then he took up his journey to what he calls his Arbutus Valley. It was out this time in its most delicate of dresses to greet him. The perfume rose to meet him as he bent over and cut cluster after cluster of the wax-like pink and white flowers, striving to be as careful as possible to spare the body of the plant. The liverwort and the anemone were in bloom also, the trailing pine was near by, and in gathering bouquets of them all the Spectator felt as if he were repaid for the long, slow winter which had been so very reluctant to give way to spring.

In the evening it was of course necessary to look over the flowers and cut away the dead and useless leaves. The Spectator generously permitted the rest of his family to enjoy this pleasure while he was searching through one anthology after another in order to discover how many poets had had the good sense to celebrate the beauty of the arbutus. He felt very much injured, as if it were a personal affront, that so few of them had cared to devote their talents to its description. Whittier had written a few lines about "The Mayflower," and Bryant mentioned it once under its name of ground laurel. He had hoped to be able to show proudly to his family the large number of poets who had been charmed into writing about it. He finally contented himself by remarking casually that he had run across a little selection from Bryant which he would like to have them hear, and then he read to them as if he had found them purely by chance the following lines:

"Within the woods
Tufts of ground laurel, creeping underneath
The leaves of the last summer, send their sweets
Upon the chilly air, and by the oak
The squirrel-cups, a graceful company,
Hide in their bells a soft aerial blue."

THE NEW BOOKS

Adjustment (The). By Marguerite Bryant. Duffield & Co., New York. $1.30.

This novel is a thoughtful and subtle study of character and life by the author of "Christopher Hibbault: Roadmaker," a story which had just these same qualities. The novel will not appeal to those who want their fiction in quick and strong doses, for the action is slow and the incidents far apart. Yet, not only in the manner of its writing, but in its real depth of knowledge of life and in the spirit of high idealism to be found in the characters of Christina and her mother, there is a great deal that is worthy of close attention and deserving of praise as being unusual in treatment and true in substance.

Dorinda's Birthday. By Charles Lee. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.25.

This is a Cornish idyl, and it is admirably done. The story centers about Midsummer-Day festivities on the coast of Cornwall. It is Dorinda's seventeenth birthday and St. Hender's feast day, with sports and games and a bell-ringing contest in the church tower. Dorinda puts up her hair for the first time and ventures into the atmosphere of courtship. The tender relationship between her and her father, fond of "quips," is very attractive, and the writer has succeeded in transferring to his gracefully written pages a charming picture of English country life, to be set beside many others of similar beauty.

Sally Salt. By Mrs. Wilson Woodrow. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.25.

Mrs. Wilson Woodrow has not drawn an absolutely novel heroine in "Sally Salt," but she has combined some of the ordinary material of a novel in somewhat original fashion. Sally is a big, efficient, red-haired girl who was widowed almost before she knew what marriage was, and

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lives on her own farm in the South, "bossing" everything, and generally to the advantage of everybody. Lifelike colored servants, cleverly drawn dependents, and neighbors surround Sally, while the romance of her life develops through her love for an inexplicable, tramp-like man of education and fine fancy who appears on her place year after year as a helper in the field.

Buttered Side Down. By Edna Ferber. The F. A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.

The author, whose "Dawn O'Hara" had a genuine success last year, is a disciple of O. Henry—and a very successful disciple, too. These stories deal mostly with slangy and lively shop-girls, waitresses, fourth-rate actresses, and the like, but they all have a genuine touch of human nature, the situations are novel, and the "wind-up" of each story has a distinct, often surprising, and sometimes a little disappointing turn. It would be absurd to regard the stories as a serious attempt at fiction of a high order, but in their own class they are clever and amusing.

Thread of Life (The). By Comtesse de Avila (H. R. H. Eulalia, Infanta of Spain). Duffield & Co., New York. $1.25.

A book by a royal author has a certain interest for many people, but if the present volume had been by a real "Comtesse de Avila," the assumed name of the Infanta Eulalia of Spain, few people would have paid attention to it. Perhaps few people will pay attention to the book anyway, for it is unsystematic in outline and unoriginal in the thought expressed. However, the Princess has reflected somewhat upon the various social problems of the day, and her point of view with regard to divorce, for instance, the family, marriage, and the independence of woman is not uninteresting. When she comes to speak of the so-called working classes, however, she is less interesting, because she is apparently never free from the consciousness of her own identity.

Life of Lyof N. Tolstoy (The). By Nathan Haskell Dole. The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. $2.

This is a sympathetic biographical memoir rather than a close analytical study. It tells with painstaking fidelity the whole story of Tolstoy's life, from his childhood and early vicissitudes and eccentricities to the last pathetic pilgrimage. To Mr. Dole, quite evidently, the riddle raised by the great reformer's varied and strange career is easily solved. From first to last, as this biographer sees it, he was in quest of the Blue Bird of Happiness. This was his absorbing passion, and to it are attributable alike the dissipations of his youth and the sacrifices of his later years. The aim, the goal, he had in mind was ever the same, but his point of view shifted. Ultimately, as we know, he attained the settled conviction that true happiness is to be found in loving and benefiting others, and it was through the perpetual application of this theory, in his life as in his writings, that his fame and influence became world-wide notwithstanding the manifest impracticality of many of his teachings. Such an interpretation at least has the advantage of giving consistency to the many seeming inconsistencies in Tolstoy's life, and also of aiding us to understand why his relatives and friends so often found him "difficult." But whether it does full justice to him is another question. For ourselves we are inclined to believe that the supreme egoism which it implies was effaced long before Tolstoy's death by the purest altruism; that, in his later years at any rate, he did good for good's own sake, and without any thought of personal satisfaction. Mr. Dole, it may be added, has industriously brought together much anecdotal material, appreciably lightening his book and throwing interesting side-lights on Tolstoy and his circle.

Scientific Management in the Churches. By Shailer Mathews. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 50c.

The scientific management explained and advocated here is realized only in subjecting the present conventionalized activity of most churches to the law of the division of labor, dominant everywhere but in churches. Its net result may be expressed briefly as the conservation of energies and the elimination of waste. On this depends what influence the churches can exert for the spiritualizing and moralizing of the present social order. In lack of this the Church is likely to be either an abstraction or "a mob of well-intended anarchists." But to promote church efficiency Professor Mathews insists that ministers must receive a different sort of education from that which most of them are getting in seminaries. The valuable essay read at the Sagamore Beach Conference last summer is presented in an expanded form in this little book.

Memories of Two Wars. By Frederick Funston. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.

Brigadier-General Frederick Funston has made a real contribution to history. His book covers two wars, the Cuban and the Philippine, but, as he says, it does not pretend to cover discussions of military strategy or tactics; it "is nothing more than a contribution to the literature of adventure." To appreciate the vividness of the contribution one of the stories should be quoted; for instance:

> The result of Mr. Zayas's suggestion was that I took a note from him to the firm of Hartley & Graham, the arms dealers from whom the Cubans purchased their implements of war, and had explained to me by one of their experts the mysteries of the Hotchkiss twelve-pounder breech-loading rifle, and was allowed to fondle that ugly-looking instrument of death to my heart's content and take it apart and put it together again. A book of instructions as to its use and a lot of formidable tables of velocities at various ranges, etc., I all but committed to memory. My keen interest in this new subject so pleased Mr. Zayas that he suggested that I impart some of my valuable lore to some of his countrymen in New York who were presumably waiting in feverish anxiety for the sailing of the

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next expedition. This I agreed to do, though it struck me as a somewhat indiscreet performance in a city where Cubans were closely watched by Spanish spies, and where there were innumerable enterprising reporters looking for "scoops." But I kept my feelings to myself, and a few evenings later was conducted by one of the attachés of the Junta to a small hall over a saloon, well up on Third Avenue. All but a few of the lights were turned off and the window-shades were well drawn. Here we found about fifteen Cubans, callow youths in the main, the most of them, I judged, being students. These aspiring patriots chattered like magpies and smoked the most astounding number of cigarettes. In addition to this promising material, there were in the room several large and imposing-looking crates labeled "machinery." These were opened and turned out to be the various parts of a Hotchkiss twelve-pounder. My recently acquired knowledge, what there was of it, now became of use, and the gun was set up and taken apart a dozen times, and the breech mechanism, sights, and ammunition explained. As this gun is transported in sections on mule-back as well as dragged by a shaft, the various heavy pieces were lifted up to the height of an imaginary or "theoretical" mule and then let down again, a form of calisthenics that soon palled on the embryo artillerymen, the night being hot and the room close. Several times the pieces were allowed to fall to the floor with a noise that should have aroused the block, and I spent a good bit of time figuring out how I would explain to the police, if they came to investigate, what I was doing with such warlike paraphernalia in peaceful New York. But we were not molested, and for a month, once a week, went through this performance. It was wasted effort. Whether any of these young men ever reached the island to participate in the war I do not know, but certain it is that there was not one of them in the artillery command of the "Departamento del Oriente," the only one that did any serious work with artillery during the struggle. But it was different with the gun that we trundled and knocked about on those hot summer nights above that Third Avenue saloon, for it had its baptism in that hell of Mauser fire at Cascorra, where it was served within two hundred yards of a trench full of Spaniards, until human endurance could stand the strain no longer, and the gun was dragged backward into a ravine by the survivors of the detachment. And later, at Guaimaro, Winchester Dana Osgood, Cornell's famous football player, fell across its trail, shot through the brain. It helped to batter down the stone fort at Jiguani, and took part in the duel with the Krupp battery at Victoria de las Tunas, and I understand now rests in the Havana Arsenal and is pointed out to visitors as one of the relics of the War of Independence. Verily, the old gun had a career not to be ashamed of.

The attraction of this volume over some others on the Spanish War lies in the personal touch. If General Funston describes Aguinaldo, he tells you just what the author *saw* with his own eyes; you learn of what he *did* with his own hands. The result is a vivacious, vigorous, intimate account, entertaining, instructive, and impressive, a true soldier's story.

Narratives of Early Pennsylvania, West New Jersey, and Delaware, 1630–1707. Edited by Albert Cook Myers. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.

American Colonial Government, 1696–1765. By Oliver Morton Dickerson, Ph.D. The Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland. $4.

Two books have just appeared that are of interest to students of our colonial history. The first has to do with the latter half of the seventeenth century; the second, with the first half of the eighteenth. In the first of these two books Mr. Myers presents a compilation of original narratives of early Pennsylvania, West New Jersey, and Delaware. The volume vividly illustrates the period when the Swedish people of the Delaware River region gave way to the Dutch, and also of that later and even more interesting period when William Penn did his own narrating. The excerpts from Penn's narratives comprised in this volume are well worth while. Dr. Dickerson's volume should also be a time-saver to many a scholar. Its particular merit consists in the information taken from the records of the English Board of Trade during the early eighteenth century, an important period of our colonial life, for it was then that the colonies developed their traditions of political liberty and gradually acquired well-nigh complete self-government. The year 1700 found all our colonies, save those of New England, weak dependencies; but sixty-five years later the appointed councils had been despoiled of their chief legislative powers, and the Governors had been reduced to practical figureheads. During this period the English Board of Trade was officially charged with colonial affairs, and was in constant touch with the various American colonies, considering their needs and grievances, advising their officers, examining and criticising their laws. The colonial policies decided on by the Board were then laid before the Privy Council for ratification. Dr. Dickerson's treatment of colonial education is interesting, if for no other reason than to note how clearly he brings out the subjection of local laws to the central governmental review. In this connection the book also throws light on such questions as: Who directed the royal veto? What laws were vetoed and why? Were such interferences the result of an irresponsible monarch's arbitrary action or that of a conservative judicial body? What was the effect of such vetoes on colonial legislation? Has our own judicial practice inherited anything from colonial precedents? From the publisher's point of view—in paper, print, illustration, and binding—the book is admirable, as befits the text.

Dynamic Christianity. By Levi Gilbert. Eaton & Mains, New York. $1.50.

Dr. Gilbert has written a needful, thoughtful, and helpful book. It recognizes the fundamental facts that feeling is the dynamic element in human nature, and that religion is the deepest and most potent of the feelings that have molded history and civilization. It notices present conditions which tend to lower the flame of feeling on the altar of religion, and which impose the need of its revival. It finds little of the dynamic element in mere culture. The church of the intellectuals is both small and feeble. Nor is there anything dynamic in the most elaborate organization of religious machinery, however valuable it be. No great religious effect was ever accomplished without a spiritual passionateness, deep and strong in its conscious responsiveness to the Spirit of God, and this must rise and well forth from individual lives alive to him. These leading thoughts are developed and illustrated in

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many points of their practical pertinency both to clergymen and to laymen in the Church and in social and family life.

From Constantinople to the Home of Omar Khayyám. By A. V. Williams Jackson. The Macmillan Company, New York. $3.50.

Would that other erudite scholars, when they travel, were as alive as is Professor Jackson to the romantic. In his books there is always a touch of romance. As he instructs us he always has an eye to the picturesque. Hence we are entertained as well as instructed. In his latest volume the author journeys from Constantinople to Sevastopol, crosses the Black Sea to Batum and thence to Baku on the Caspian, travels across northern Persia, and finally into Russian Asia. With him we see cities and scenery, but as we go, there is ever the evidence of the author's comprehension of the history of civilization, of the development of literature, and of the sphere of man's influence—especially as regards Alexander the Great, who first threw open the "Gates of the Morning" to Greece. We pass through the places which Alexander passed through, and at length we come to Nishapur, the home of Omar Khayyám. All this has the charm of poetry as well as of prose, but perhaps to readers of current politics the comparatively prosy part of the book, wherein Teheran, the capital, is described, will be of most interest. Professor Jackson notes there certain interesting signs of progress in contrast with what he has seen in former visits. First, there is the increase in the number of wheeled vehicles for use in the transportation of goods instead of the former employment of pack animals and camels; second, some thoroughfares are now cleaned and sprinkled; the names of streets are indicated and houses numbered. Then, houses of two stories are being built; even moving-picture shows have come to town. What Persia most needs, says Professor Jackson, is education and the necessity of believing in the dignity of labor. "Then may the hand of a new Cyrus and a new Darius be outstretched to grasp the hand of fellowship and support extended by lands that know the rule of a liberal government and the blessings of a constitution." Such a land is England, but has her recent course with regard to Persia been entirely one of "fellowship and support"?

New History (The). By James Harvey Robinson. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.

Under this title are collected eight essays presenting strong reasons for dissatisfaction with popular historiography, and illustrating their author's idea of how history needs to be newly written. The historian, says Professor Robinson, "will aspire hereafter to find out, not only exactly how things have been, but how they have come about." History has to recognize that it is based on sister sciences, especially on "the newer sciences of man," which "are now in a position to rectify many of the commonly accepted conclusions of the historian." Numerous illustrations are given of these "new allies of history," with following reflections on intellectual history, and on history for the common man. As a specimen of the defectiveness of much that passes for true history, Professor Robinson's critique of two representative textbooks shows how far from reality are the commonly accepted notions of "the fall of Rome" in the fifth century A.D. Altogether, this is a stimulating and a fruitful volume.

Fourteen Years a Jesuit. By Count Paul von Hoensbroech. Translated by Alice Zimmern. In 2 vols. Cassell & Co., New York. $7.50.

For the general reader's use, Count von Hoensbroech's two volumes of intimate information might have been profitably condensed into one, particularly as it appears that the work was not prepared with a didactic purpose. Nor is it, so the author tells us, meant as a calculated attack on the Jesuit order. It is difficult to believe either of these statements. Certainly Count von Hoensbroech does draw the sword in dealing with Jesuit literature, and he frankly says so. In general, the volumes throw a strong searchlight on the inner workings of the order.

Manual of Ship Subsidies. By Edwin M. Bacon, M.A. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 50c.

We do not always realize how many forms ship subsidies can take—premiums on the building of vessels, navigation bounties, trade bounties, fishing bounties, postal subsidies for carrying ocean mails, naval subventions, canal refunds, and government loans. It is well that the history of the development of ship subsidies under all these forms should be succinctly told, and this is what Mr. Bacon's little volume does. In it the author presents a manual of facts, not of opinions, and he adds a summary of the different ship subsidy grants by the various nations. Thus the volume is valuable for ready reference.

Comedy and Tragedy of the Second Empire (The). By Edward Legge. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2.

French society under the Second Empire was exceedingly gay. It is fairly well described in Mr. Edward Legge's volume, and receives special point because of the quotations from letters by Napoleon III, M. Pietri, and the Comte de la Chapelle. Mr. Legge calls Napoleon III "the Pale Emperor," doubtless because of Vambéry's description of the monarch's "flabby features and pale, faded eyes."

New Europe (The). By R. W. Jeffery. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $2.50.

It seems a pity that a work entitled "The New Europe" should comprise nothing after 1889, though the history of the hundred years from 1799 is well and succinctly told. The book has been amply provided with admirable maps, diagrams, general tables, bibliography, and index.

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BY THE WAY

The new Campanile at Venice is to be dedicated on April 25. The old Campanile, it will be remembered, fell in 1902, after standing for a thousand years. The announcement issued by the authorities in connection with the dedication ceremonies is illustrated with a picture by the American artist Mr. Joseph Pennell.

People who dislike to part with their old furniture may derive encouragement as to the increasing value of such possessions from a recent auction sale in France, at which an old sofa and four chairs brought $50,000. The set, however, was covered with Gobelin tapestry of the period of the Regency, and probably cost a goodly sum even when new. At the same sale a string of pearls brought $99,000.

Hamilton College, at Clinton, New York, will celebrate its centennial anniversary June 17. The College, which is named in honor of Alexander Hamilton, who gave liberally to the academy out of which Hamilton College grew, has had many famous alumni. One of these, the Hon. Elihu Root, will deliver a historical address at the centennial exercises.

A recently published book on Africa gives certain native tribes credit for greater intellectuality than has usually been ascribed to the Negro race. "Every Central African," it says, "is a born lawyer. Should the need arise, he can act as his own pleader, and set forth his case with fluency and lawyer-like adroitness." It will be remembered that Bishop Colenso also had a high opinion of the acumen of certain native Africans as Biblical critics.

A Chicago physician has made a translation of an Egyptian papyrus which, it is claimed, dislodges Hippocrates from his place as "father of medicine" by anticipating his discoveries some 5,000 years. Even appendicitis, it is asserted, is described in this old papyrus. It now remains for some one to show that Ecclesiastes' dictum, "There is nothing new under the sun," was really written by Pharaoh or Thothmes.

That anything still remains to be unearthed concerning Napoleon seems incredible; yet new finds are made every year. The "Century" this month prints many hitherto unpublished pictures of the Emperor, made at St. Helena. Probably after everything associated with Napoleon is published, coming generations will begin to discover new material in old books, and print it all over again to satisfy the readers of the future as to the deeds and character of this marvel of history.

A State Park is to be established at Saratoga, New York, for the conservation of the famous mineral water springs at that place. The Grand Union Hotel, which was built by A. T. Stewart at a cost of $1,000,000, is to be reopened, and Saratoga hopes again to become a "summer capital."

The eccentric John Randolph of Roanoke, according to a recently published letter describing his last moments, even on his deathbed was critical in matters of orthoepy. A Quaker acquaintance, in trying to comfort the dying man by reading a passage of Scripture, said "Omni-potent." "Raising himself from the pillow," says the letter, "Randolph exclaimed, 'Om-*nip*-otent, sir! Read that Om-*nip*-otent!'" The reader explained that Friends pronounced the word as he had read it in order to give it greater effect. Randolph gasped out, "That is wrong, sir; read it always Om*nip*-o-tent, sir!"

Randolph, a past-master of cutting invective, once, it is recalled, suppressed an opponent in Congress by a similar comment on a slip in pronunciation. "I pass by the gentleman's errors in chronology," he said, "his misquotations, his faulty logic, his erroneous reading of history, but"—turning on his adversary—"for God's sake, sir, don't say har-*assed!*"

A Massachusetts woman has invented an "individual car-strap" for the convenience of women strap-hangers who dislike to hold on to the soiled leather straps that are provided for their support by the public service corporations. The new device is made of webbing, and hooks on to the leather strap. An invention of this sort makes one feel that the age of chivalry has definitely gone and that the business woman is regretfully accepting the situation.

According to the "Catholic Directory" for 1912, there are 15,015,569 Roman Catholics in the United States. As the inhabitants of the entire country number this year about 95,000,000, the Catholic population seems to be, from these statistics, somewhat less than one-sixth of the whole.

Miss Dorothy Campbell, the British and Canadian champion golf player, was defeated by Miss Kate Van Ostrand, of Watertown, New York, at Pinehurst, North Carolina, March 28. The vicissitudes of golf are illustrated by the fact that on the following day Miss Van Ostrand herself was defeated.

The capitalists of France have plenty of confidence in the State railways of that prosperous country. A loan of $12,000,000 recently asked for these railways was over-subscribed thirty-two times in four hours.

When a book collector gets a genuine attack of the Omar craze, he stops at nothing. A copy of the "Rubáiyát," recently sold in London, was bound in levant morocco studded with over a thousand jewels set in gold! This certainly was not the kind of book that Omar loved to read when he picnicked "underneath the bough" with a jug of wine, a loaf of bread, and pleasant company.

The New York State Department of Agriculture furnished about five thousand laborers to farmers during 1911. The employer must advance railway transportation from New York City for the help wanted, but this may be deducted from the employee's wages. In general it is said that these farm hands prove satisfactory, though occasionally an "experienced farm hand" will turn up who doesn't know from which side a cow should be milked. Persons interested may obtain further particulars from the Commissioner of Agriculture, Mr. R. A. Pearson, at Albany.

A new steamship built for the West India trade has anchors both fore and aft, so that the danger of drifting on to the rocks in certain exposed anchoring places may be lessened. Many wrecks have occurred through vessels being unable to hold their anchorage during a storm—notably the destruction of the United States war-ships Trenton and Vandalia in the hurricane at Apia some years ago.

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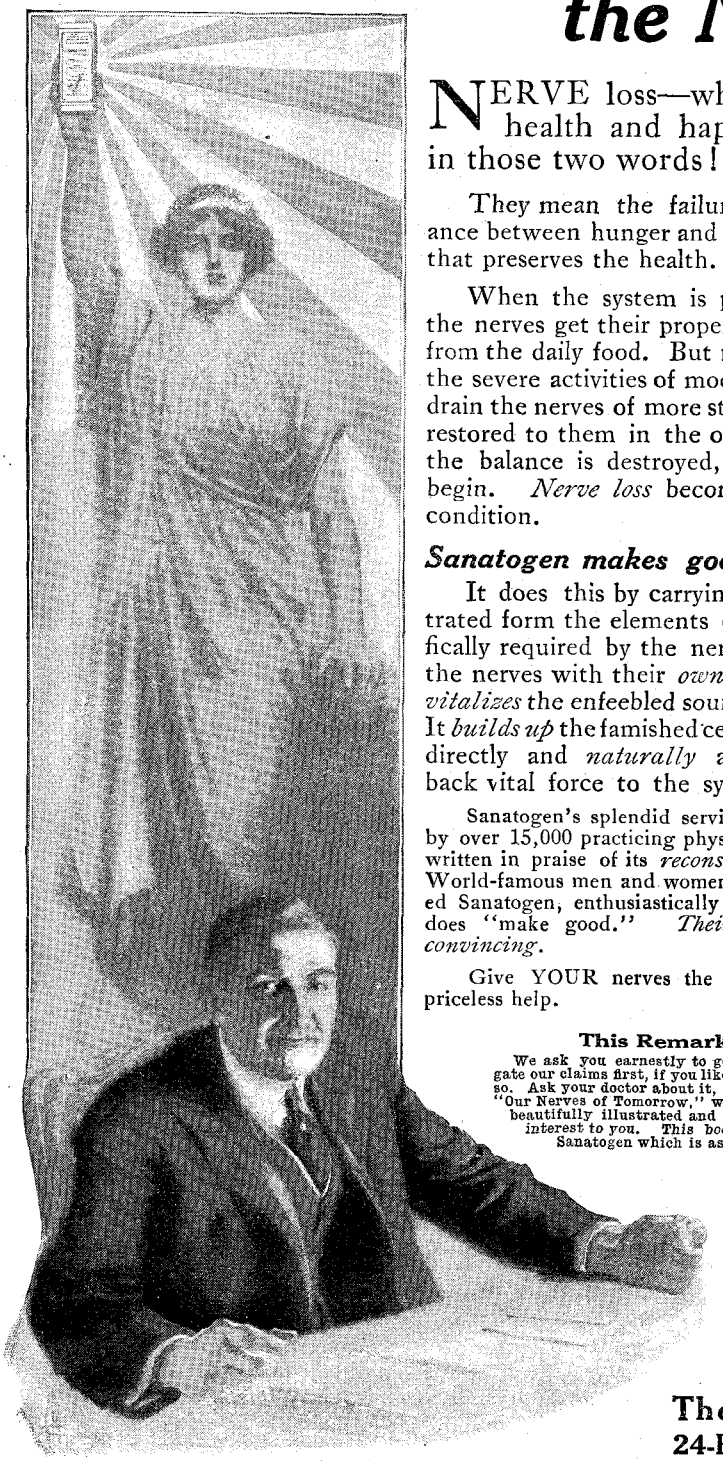

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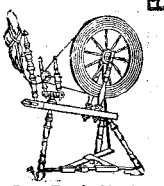

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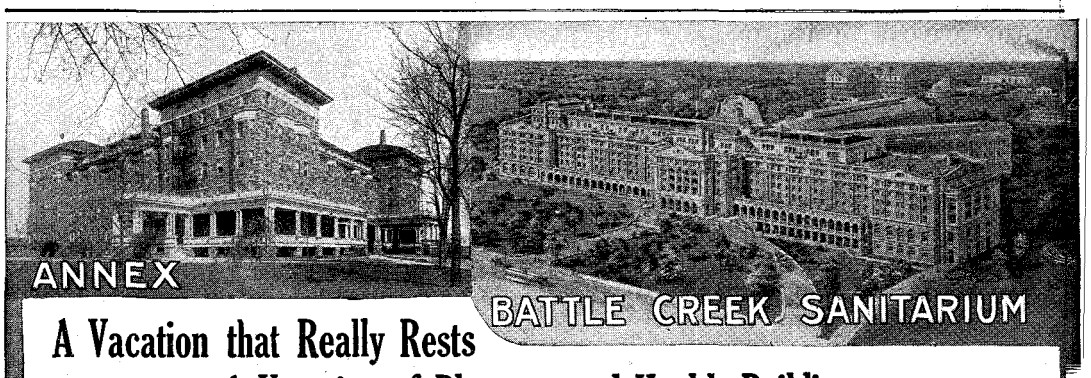

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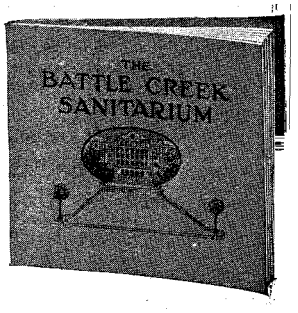

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